

**PRONUNCIATION AWARENESS TRAINING AS AN AID TO
DEVELOPING EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILLS**

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ABSTRACT

PRONUNCIATION AWARENESS TRAINING AS AN AID TO DEVELOPING
EFL LEARNERS' LISTENING COMPREHENSION SKILLS

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This study investigates the effects of pronunciation awareness training on listening comprehension skills of tertiary level English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students. The participants were 68 Upper Intermediate level students studying at Gazi University, School of Foreign Languages, Intensive English Program. Two experimental and four control groups were employed in the study. At the beginning of the study, all groups were administered a pre training test to determine their level of listening comprehension. After the pre-test, the experimental groups received the pronunciation awareness training, while the control groups continued their regular classes. At the end of the 6-week period, all groups were given a post training test to see if they have improved their listening comprehension skills.

The findings revealed that, both the experimental and the control groups have performed a statistically significant development at the end of the 6-week period. Although the control group has increased their listening comprehension skills, which may be attributed to the success of the program offered by Gazi University, School

of Foreign Languages, the fact that the experimental group has performed a significantly higher development implies that the pronunciation awareness training has been more effective in developing listening comprehension skills than their regular English classes. This finding confirms the previous literature suggesting the relationship between pronunciation awareness and listening comprehension.

The present study has filled the gap in the literature on listening comprehension regarding integrating listening and pronunciation by suggesting a new way to apply in order to develop EFL learners' listening skills. This study gives the stakeholders; the administrators, curriculum designers, material developers, and teachers the opportunity to draw on the findings in order to shape curricula, create syllabi, develop materials, and conduct classes accordingly.

Key words: listening, listening comprehension, pronunciation, pronunciation awareness, develop

ÖZET

YABANCI DİL OLARAK İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENENLERİN DİNLEME ANLAMA BECERİLERİNİ GELİŞTİRMEYE YARDIM OLARAK SESLETİM FARKINDALIK EĞİTİMİ

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Yüksek Lisans, Yabancı Dil Olarak İngilizce Öğretimi Bölümü

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Bu çalışma, sesletim farkındalık eğitiminin, üniversite düzeyindeki yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin dinleme anlama becerisi üzerindeki etkilerini incelemektedir. Katılımcılar, Gazi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu, İngilizce hazırlık programında orta düzey üzeri seviyede öğretim gören 68 öğrencidir. Bu çalışmada iki deney grubu, dört kontrol grubu kullanılmıştır. Çalışmanın başında tüm gruplara dinleme anlama seviyelerini ölçmek amacıyla bir ön test uygulanmıştır. Ön testin ardından, deney grupları sesletim farkındalık eğitimi alırken, kontrol grupları olağan derslerine devam etmişlerdir. Altı haftalık sürecin sonunda, dinleme anlama becerilerinin gelişip gelişmediğini görmek amacıyla tüm gruplara bir son test uygulanmıştır.

Bulgular, altı haftalık sürecin sonunda hem deney grubunun hem de kontrol grubunun dinleme anlama becerilerini istatistiksel olarak anlamlı derecede geliştirdiklerini göstermiştir. Her ne kadar kontrol grubu dinleme anlama becerilerini

geliřtirmiş olsa da, ki bu Gazi Üniversitesi Yabancı Diller Yüksek okulu tarafından sunulan programın başarısına bağlanabilir, deney grubunun anlamlı ölçüde daha büyük bir gelişim göstermesi sesletim farkındalık eğitiminin dinleme anlama becerilerini olağan derslerden daha etkili bir şekilde geliřtirdiğine işaret etmektedir. Bu bulgu, literatürün dinleme anlama ve sesletim farkındalığı arasındaki bağlantı önerisini onaylamaktadır.

Bu çalışma yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenenlerin dinleme becerilerini geliřtirmek için yeni bir yöntem öne sürerek, dinleme literatüründeki sesletim ve dinlemeyi bütünleřtirmeye ilişkin boşluğu doldurmuştur. Çalışmanın sonuçları, yöneticiler, müfredat geliřtirenler, materyal hazırlayanlar, ve öğretmenler gibi ilgililere müfredat şekillendirmek, izlenice hazırlamak, materyal geliřtirmek ve dersleri bunların doğrultusunda uygulamakta faydalanmak için olanak sunmaktadır.

Anahtar sözcükler: dinleme, dinleme anlama, sesletim, sesletim farkındalık, geliřtirmek

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CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Listening has generally been neglected as a skill in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT). This neglect was even more serious in the early period of ELT when the focus was on reading and grammatical skills. With the interest of researchers, it has gained ground in the research field, but formal instruction in the ELT classroom has often failed to act upon this interest. Although being neglected, listening is one of the most important but difficult skills to acquire.

Listening is one of the most problematic skills for foreign language learners (FLL) since it does not develop easily. In order to develop this skill, many different methods have been applied and various activities have been employed in classrooms. Teachers have sought ways to teach FLLs strategies to adopt. In addition to applying strategies, researchers and teachers have designed and tried to follow different techniques such as using visual aids and particular computer programs. With the help of technology, opportunities for classroom instruction arise and teachers try to take advantage of these opportunities. Nevertheless, listening has remained one of the most difficult skills due to certain reasons. For instance, no matter how different the techniques that the teachers employ in classrooms, the materials lack the strength to cover how the real listening process occurs (Brown & Yule, 1983; Rosa, 2002). The listening texts used in classrooms are usually modified according to the levels of the FLLs; such that even advanced learners are exposed to reduced language. This causes the FLLs to have problems in comprehending “real speech”. Learners may understand what has been uttered in taped recordings, but may miss some important

details when they encounter real life communication (Brown, G., 1977; Brown, J.D., 2006; Brown & Yule, 1983). In order to apprehend what is meant thoroughly, one has to be aware of the nature of spoken language which is directly related to the phonological features of the language. Therefore, pronunciation awareness of a foreign language deserves consideration. With respect to this assumption, this study attempts to find if pronunciation training has any effect on developing listening comprehension.

Background of the Study

Early in the 20th century, the sole purpose of English language learning (ELL) was to understand literary works. Teaching listening was not regarded as an important component of language teaching and English language researchers and teachers focused primarily on reading and grammatical skills (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). However, changes in approaches to language teaching led to changes in classroom applications breeding a fluctuation in the attention given to listening. In the 1970s, listening became increasingly integrated into English teaching curricula and has preserved its place until today (Cinemre, 1991). Now, there is a considerable number of researchers and scholars who give paramount importance to the skill (e.g., Berne, 2004; Brown, 2008; Jia & Fu, 2011). As Lundsteen (1979) states, “listening is the first language skill to appear. Chronologically, children listen before they speak, speak before they read, and read before they write” (p. xi).

What Lundsteen emphasizes; that is, listening is the basis for other skills, is true for second language (L2) as well as first language (L1) acquisition. Learners need to listen to language input in order to produce in other skill areas; without input

at the right level, no learning will happen (Rost, 1994). Therefore, the importance of teaching listening can well be seen. For being a complex phenomenon, teaching listening has caught the attention of many researchers (e.g., Brown, 2007; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2009; Hinkel, 2006; Vandergrift, 2007) and teachers in pursuit of finding ways for classroom instruction. Nunan and Miller (1995) categorize these ways as follows:

1. developing cognitive strategies
2. developing listening with other skills
3. listening to authentic material
4. using technology
5. listening for academic purposes
6. listening for fun

Applying strategies into the listening learning/teaching process has become a mounting concern for both teachers and learners. However, learners' employing strategies alone will not promote developing listening skills; seeing the need, teachers attempt to include various techniques in their classes. Lundsteen (1979) defines listening as the process in which spoken language changes into meaning in the mind. To convert spoken foreign language in the mind, learners should be aware of the phonological features of the language. This fact signals the importance of the pronunciation component of language learning.

Pronunciation has long been underrated in the field of English language teaching. The interest in language teaching previously, as mentioned before, was on

teaching through literary works. With the application of different approaches and methods, pronunciation teaching experienced an inconsistency in receiving credit but finally it gained approval in the 1980s. With the rise of the communicative approach in language teaching, which is still followed, communication has become the focus of language learning and teaching. As part of successful communication, pronunciation teaching has become important (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996).

Increasing need of teaching pronunciation in communicative approach has triggered researchers to work on various components of pronunciation. As Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) point out; early research focused mainly on the acquisition of individual vowel or consonant phonemes. Upon recognition of the difficulties that learners experience, a new area to research emerged. Investigation on factors affecting pronunciation increasingly became researchers' interest. The focal point in research in the 1990s, however, was, as Celce-Murcia, et al. (1996) state, "learners' acquisition of English intonation, rhythm, connected speech, and voice quality settings" (p.25-26). For example, Hiller, Rooney, Laver, and Jack (1993) investigated a computer assisted language learning program called SPELL, which incorporates teaching modules in intonation, rhythm and vowel quality. The preliminary results were in favor of using the program as a language learning tool. Today, a wider range of research can be seen focusing on English pronunciation. Hismanoglu and Hismanoglu (2010) conducted a study to find the pronunciation teaching techniques preferred by language teachers. The results indicated that

teachers preferred traditional techniques such as dictation, reading aloud to modern techniques like instructional software and the Internet.

The literature suggests that pronunciation cannot be dissociated from other foreign language skills (e.g., Celce-Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996); in fact it has a significant relation to listening comprehension. Therefore, teaching these interrelated skills together in classrooms so as to develop both may be encouraged.

Statement of the Problem

After gaining its long deserved importance, listening has become the interest of many researchers. There have been various research studies on how to develop listening comprehension (Brown, 2007; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2009; Hinkel, 2006; Vandergrift, 2007) including a number on the development of listening strategies (Berne, 2004; Jia & Fu, 2011). Another subject of debate in the English Language Teaching (ELT) literature is integrating different language skills to reinforce learning (Brown, 2001). For instance, the role of listening on developing pronunciation has been frequently studied (Couper, 2011; Demirezen, 2010; Kennedy & Trofimovich, 2010; Trofimovich, Lightbown, Halter, & Song, 2009). On the other hand, the reverse connection, which is the relationship between pronunciation level and listening comprehension, has been an area of interest to very few researchers (Perron, 1996; Çekiç, 2007). While Perron (1996) studied the effects of Spanish pronunciation training on the listening comprehension of French FLLs, Çekiç (2007) conducted his study to investigate the effect of computer assisted English pronunciation training on listening comprehension of Turkish FLLs. Thus, there

remains a need to explore the effects of face-to-face English pronunciation training on the listening comprehension of Turkish FLLs.

Listening comprehension is a difficult skill to develop for learners of English. In Turkey, FLLs do not have opportunities for authentic oral input. Neglecting the natural spoken language, teachers often speak clear and comprehensible English (Coşkun, 2008), and/or expose learners to modified listening passages in textbooks, which reduce Turkish learners' chances of gaining competence in listening. Rosa (2002) calls these modified listening passages adapted or unnatural. Brown (1995) suggested that the main problem of students, especially the ones visiting foreign countries is that, although they can speak English intelligibly, they cannot understand it. She asserted that the reason behind this is because the students usually are exposed to a "slow formal style of English spoken on taped courses" (p. 2) (also Rosa, 2002). Since this is true for Turkish students as well, practitioners in Turkey are in relentless pursuit of finding ways to develop listening comprehension. Based on the emerging consensus over the integration of skills among scholars, the need to investigate the possible effects of teaching pronunciation on listening comprehension naturally arises. Therefore, the present study aims to investigate the effect, if any, of pronunciation awareness training on listening comprehension skills of tertiary level English as a foreign language (EFL) students. Thus, the addressed overarching research question is:

Research Question:

1. What is the effect of pronunciation awareness training on tertiary level Turkish EFL students' listening comprehension?

Significance of the Study

The literature on the instruction and acquisition of listening suggests different techniques for helping EFL students to develop this skill. However, not much research has been done on integrating skills in order to reinforce listening skill development. Due to the limited amount of research into the effects of pronunciation training on listening comprehension, and its focus on only one method of such training, the results of this study may contribute to the literature by suggesting a new way to develop listening comprehension skills. Teaching pronunciation may serve as a counteracting factor against the difficulty in developing listening comprehension skills.

At the local level, although many different instructional approaches have been employed to improve Turkish EFL students' listening comprehension, problems in listening achievement remain. The results of this study may shed light on the extant debate over how to develop the listening comprehension of Turkish EFL students. Pronunciation training in classrooms, when applied as part of regular teaching, may enhance listening skills. English Language teachers, administrators, curriculum designers, and material developers may draw on the findings to shape curricula and syllabi. Teachers may create materials and activities accordingly.

Conclusion

This chapter presented the background of the present study, the statement of the problem, the research question, and the significance of the study. The next chapter will introduce the review of the previous literature on listening comprehension and pronunciation.

CHAPTER II: LITERATURE REVIEW

There were three people on a train in England. As they approached what appeared to be Wemberly Station, one of the travelers said, "Is this Wemberley?" "No," replied the second passenger, "it's Thursday." Whereupon the third person remarked, "Oh, I am too; let's have a drink!"

(Brown, 2001, p.247)

Introduction

This chapter presents the review of the literature relevant to the present study that investigates the effects of pronunciation awareness training on listening comprehension. First the place of listening in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) will be given by focusing on the history, definitions, and importance of listening and how to teach it. In the second section, the place of pronunciation in ELT field will be reviewed. The history, definition and importance of pronunciation will be discussed. The third section shows the possibility of developing listening skills by building pronunciation awareness.

Listening in English Language Teaching (ELT)

When world languages gained importance scoring triumph against Latin throughout the world in eighteenth century, English, as a modern language entered the curricula of language schools. First, English was taught in the same process as Latin was, in the method which was called Classical Method (Brown, 2001; Larsen-Freeman, 2000); the focus was on grammar rules, vocabulary and translation

(Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In time, teaching English has undergone different approaches and methods each one of which focusing on different aspects of ELT. For example, Grammar Translation Method focused on grammar, as the name suggests, while the Silent Way emphasized the oral and aural proficiency, or Whole Language gave a focus on reading and writing proficiency. Listening, on the other hand, has been one of the most difficult yet underrated components of ELT. Learners of English do not find it easy to develop this skill; however, not many techniques are employed by learners or teachers to achieve success in listening. To better understand listening in ELT classroom, it is reasonable to analyze it in depth.

History of Listening in ELT

First method followed in ELT was Grammar Translation Method (GTM) which was first introduced in the nineteenth century but has preserved its place (to some extent) until today in most language classrooms. The main goal of language learning in GTM environment was to understand the literary works in order to develop intellectually. As the name suggests, in GTM the classes focused on abstract grammatical rules together with the translation of sentences; mostly literary ones. Listening did not have even slight recognition within these classes following GTM (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

In the mid-nineteenth century, scholars (e.g., Francois Gouin (1831-1896), Claude Marcel (1793-1896), and Thomas Prendergast (1806-1886)) became uncomfortable with GTM and started to criticize the method (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Following these critiques, ELT world experienced a reform movement. The reformists (e.g., Paul Passy, Henry Sweet, and Wilhem Viator) believed that no

explicit grammar instruction should be provided and translation should be avoided (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Pronunciation and phonetics were to be given credit. The advocates of the movement considered the best way to follow in language learning and teaching was as to emphasize the spoken language. Before any written input, hearing the language was primary. Therefore, listening emerged as an inevitable outcome of this movement.

What reformists suggested as the best way of second or foreign language learning was as the 'natural' development of first language acquisition. This belief turned out to be called what is known as the Direct Method. The widely acceptance of Direct Method was not difficult after the works of reformists. The classes were conducted in 'oral-based' approach in the target language. Speech and listening were taught while grammar was presented inductively. Listening was one of the most important skills focused in this method since it provided 'natural' input for orally conducted language teaching (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

After these two basic methods in the early period of ELT, many different methods have been followed. The 'methods era' was experienced; designer methods such as Community Language Learning and Total Physical Response were developed, critiques of any methods appreciated and various debates were hold as to whether follow any method in class or not (e.g., Brown, 2001; Carter & Nunan, 2002; Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Within all these transitions in history of ELT, teaching listening waxed and waned. Today, everyone acknowledges the importance of listening within classes.

Definition of Listening by Different Researchers

Listening has been defined similarly by different researchers. For instance, Morley (1972) defines listening as involving basic auditory discrimination and aural grammar as well as reauditorizing, choosing necessary information, recalling it, and relating it to everything that involves processing or conciliating between sound and composition of meaning. Similarly, according to Postovsky (1975) “Listening ranges in meaning from sound discrimination to aural comprehension (i.e., actual understanding of the spoken language)” (p. 19). What Bowen, Madsen and Hilferty (1985) state is very similar to those mentioned before: “Listening is attending to and interpreting oral language. The student should be able to hear oral speech in English, segment the stream of sounds, group them into lexical and syntactic units (words, phrases, sentences), and understand the message they convey” (p. 73). Goss (1982) denotes that listening is a process of getting what is heard and arranging it into lexical units to which meaning can be assigned. James (1984) by asserting that listening is intertwined with other language skills strongly, argues that

it is not a skill, but a set of skills all marked by the fact that they involve the aural perception of oral signals. Secondly, listening is not “passive.” A person can hear something but not be listening. His or her short-term memory may completely discard certain incoming sounds but concentrate on others. This involves a dynamic interaction between perception of sounds and concentration on content. (James, 1984, p.129)

Listening comprehension was also defined alike. According to Clark and Clark (1977),

Comprehension has two common senses. In its narrow sense it denotes the mental processes by which listeners take in the sounds uttered by a speaker and use them to construct an interpretation of what they think the speaker intended to convey... Comprehension in its broader sense, however, rarely ends here, for listeners normally put the interpretations they have built to work. (Clark & Clark, 1977, pp.43-44)

Brown and Yule (1983) refer to listening comprehension as a person's understanding of what he has heard, and relate listening comprehension to English as a Foreign Language (EFL) context by expressing that in EFL teaching, listening is often regarded as the listener's ability to repeat the text, despite the possibility that the listener may replicate the sound without genuine comprehension.

The definitions provided by several researchers imply that there is more to add in what is called "listening." It is not difficult to conclude that listening involves processing. The literature suggests that processing can occur in two different types: bottom-up processing and top-down processing (e.g., Berne, 2004; Brown, 2006; Flowerdew & Miller, 2005; Harmer, 2001; Hedge, 2000; Mc Bride, 2011; Richards, 2008; Rost, 2002; Rubin, 1994). Bottom-up processing refers to using bits to make the whole; that is, making use of individual sounds, words, or phrases and discourse markers to comprehend the input by combining these elements (Brown, 2006; Harmer, 2001; Hedge, 2000; Mc Bride, 2011; Richards, 2008; Rost, 2002). This type of processing uses the clues such as stress, lexical knowledge, syntactic structures, and so forth, that are available in the speech/input, in other words, it includes the use of knowledge of the language (Hedge, 2000). Bottom-up processing is called "data-

driven.” Top-down processing, on the other hand, refers to inferring message from the contextual clues with the help of background knowledge (Brown, 2006; Buck, 2001; Harmer, 2001; Hedge, 2000; Mc Bride, 2011; Richards, 2008). According to Hedge (2000), the prior knowledge employed in this type of processing is also known as schematic knowledge, and schema includes different categories as formal schema and content schema. Formal schema consists of the knowledge of overall structure of particular speech events such as the knowledge of a lecture having an introduction, overview, various sections, and so forth whereas the content schema includes world knowledge, sociocultural knowledge, and topic knowledge.

The Importance of Listening

As the current literature suggests, listening is growing in importance more and more and calling for more attention (e.g., Cheung, 2010; Field, 2008; Renandya & Farrell, 2010). The reason for why listening is important has been interest of many researchers, various book chapters or articles. For example, Hedge (2000) argues that listening plays an important role in everyday life and states that when a person is engaged in communication nine percent is devoted to writing, 16 percent to reading, 30 percent to speaking, and 45 percent to listening which illustrates the place of listening in everyday communication. Lundsteen (1979) discusses that “Why put listening first in the language arts? For one reason, listening is the first skill to appear. Chronologically, children listen before they speak” (p. xi). The importance of listening can be seen more clearly when the lack of listening input is analyzed. To illustrate, the case of people who cannot speak because they cannot hear is a tangible proof of this.

People cannot live in isolation from other people; nor can they live without technological devices. There are indispensable situations in which people need to comprehend the things around them aurally; that is, in which they need to activate their listening skills. These situations were summarized by Rixon (1986) and Ur (1984) as follows:

- Watching or listening to news, announcement, weather forecast, TV programs, movies, etc. on television or radio,
- listening to announcement in stations, airports, etc.,
- being involved in a conversation; face-to-face, or on the phone,
- attending a lesson, a lecture, a meeting, or a seminar,
- being given directions or instruction.

These situations may be encountered both in first language (L1) and target language. According to Hedge (2000), modern society tends to shift from printed media towards sound and its members. Thus, the importance of listening cannot be disregarded. Especially in language classroom, the role of listening is of paramount importance. Rost (1994) summarizes the significance of listening in EFL/ESL classroom as follows:

1. Listening is vital in the language classroom because it provides input for the learner. Without understanding input at the right level, any learning simply cannot begin.

2. Spoken language provides a means of interaction for the learner. Because learners must interact to achieve understanding, Access to speakers of the language is essential. Moreover, learners' failure to understand the language they hear is an impetus, not an obstacle, to interaction and learning.
3. Authentic spoken language presents a challenge for the learner to understand language as native speakers actually use it.
4. Listening exercises provide teachers with a means for drawing learners' attention to new forms (vocabulary, grammar, new interaction patterns) in the language (pp. 141-142).

Not only in daily life, outside, but also in classrooms, does listening play an important role which deserves more attention by the stakeholders.

Why is Listening Difficult?

When learners of English are asked about the most difficult English language skill, most of them will reply as listening; likewise, if teachers' opinions are asked, they will respond the same way (Rixon, 1986). There is evidence that this assumption is true (e.g., Arnold, 2000; Graham, 2002), then the question that should be considered is what makes listening so difficult. Previous literature suggests that, there are four main difficulty areas in listening.

As the aforementioned definitions suggested, listening is a complex process inasmuch as it requires the listeners to take the input, blend it with what is already known, and produce new information/meaning out of it. Rubin (1995) summarizes

this as “listening is the skill that makes the heaviest processing demands because learners must store information in short-term memory at the same time as they are working to understand the information” (p.8). In a similar vein, Brown (2006) suggests that, listeners must hear words (bottom-up processing), hold them in their short term memory to link them to each other, and then interpret what has been heard before hearing a new input. Meanwhile, they need to use their background knowledge (top-down processing) to make sense of the input: derive meaning concerning prior knowledge and schemata. According to Hedge (2000), during these processes, because listeners try to keep numerous elements of message in mind while they are inferring the meaning and determining what to store, the load on the short-term memory is heavy. Therefore, these heavy processing demands make listening an involved process.

The difficulty of listening may stem from phonological differentiation deficiency (Brown, 1985; Rixon, 1986; Ur, 1984). If listeners cannot differentiate between sounds, they may not be able to convert meaning. The anecdote shared by Mc Neill (1996) is a good example for this assumption. He mentioned that, after a fire scandal, head of the fire department uttered the sentence “one of my officers lost his *life*”; however, this was reported as “one of my officers lost his *wife*.” This confusion was faced because the phonological characteristics of Chinese and English are different from each other, and the sounds /l/ and /w/ are problematic for most of the Chinese people.

Another reason why listening is a difficult skill to acquire may be related to various features of spoken language like the use of intonation, tone of voice, rhythm,

etc (Brown, 1995; Gilbert, 1987; Rixon, 1986). Most of the time, the questions are uttered in incomplete sentences; for instance, ‘coming’. When listener is not aware of intonation patterns, the conversation may result in failure.

Last but not least, the unfamiliarity point deserves discussion. According to Brown (1995), the comprehension problems experienced by listeners occur because they may fail to understand the unfamiliar vocabulary, unfamiliar grammar, and unfamiliar pronunciation. The problem aggravates if the listener does not have the chance of asking for repetition, in situations such as while watching television or listening to the radio.

There have been various research studies focusing on the difficulties in listening. The foci of these studies can be listed as speech rate (e.g., Blau, 1990; Conrad, 1989; Derwing & Munro, 2001; Griffiths, 1990; Khatib & Khodabakhsh, 2010; Mc Bride, 2011; Zhao, 1997), lexis (e.g., Johns & Dudley-Evans, 1980; Kelly, 1991), phonological features (e.g., Henrichsen, 1984; Matter, 1989) and background knowledge (e.g., Chiang and Dunkel, 1992; Markham & Latham, 1987; Long, 1990). According to Goh (2000), there are some other factors to investigate such as text structure, syntax, personal factors such as insufficient exposure to the target language, and a lack of interest and motivation. Brown (1995) claims that all these issues are inter-related and argues that listener difficulties are caused also by cognitive demands resulting from the content of the texts. Lynch (1997) reports problem areas as arising from social and cultural practices. In a study by Graham (2006), the findings indicate that the learners perceive listening as one of the skills that they are least successful at. The participants believe that their failure stems from

the problems of perception mostly, especially about speed of delivery of texts. Also, they determine difficulties stemming from missing or mis-hearing vital words as another factor affecting their failure. In addition, focusing on individual words and missing the following information is reported as another reason for failure. Further, the participants list problems related to identifying words due to accent, which is interpreted by the researcher as the lack of exposure to authentic listening texts or pronunciation instruction, as another factor affecting their failure. The findings of Goh's (2000) study indicate that the primary difficulty faced by the learners is quickly forgetting the input which may arise from the high speed of the input.

How to Develop Listening?

If not in the natural environment; that is, if not acquired naturally like an infant acquiring the mother tongue, a language learner will not be exposed to the target language in his/her daily life; while going to the market, eating at a restaurant, or traveling on the bus. Therefore, foreign language listening should be taught and foreign language listening skills should be developed (Brown & Yule, 1983).

Various researchers have studied the ways to develop listening comprehension (e.g., Berne, 2004; Hayati & Mohmedi, 2009; Hinkel, 2006; Jia & Fu, 2011; Vandergrift, 2007). According to Nunan and Miller (1995), it is important to develop cognitive strategies (i.e., listening for main idea, listening for details, etc.) as well as integrating listening with other skill areas like speaking, vocabulary and pronunciation. They also suggested that, listening to authentic materials and using technology would help develop listening skills.

Using Strategies to Develop Listening. Chamot (1995) defines learning strategies as “the steps, plans, insights, and reflections that learners employ to learn more effectively” (p. 13). Learning strategies for listening comprehension has been an interest of many researchers (e.g. Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Henner Stanchina, 1987; Murphy, 1985; O’Malley & Chamot, 1990). The previous literature on listening suggests that the skills or the processing types of listening can raise strategies, and these listening strategies can be divided into two groups; bottom-up strategies, which refer to the speech itself and the language clues in it; these strategies focus on linguistic features and encourage learners to analyze individual words for their meaning or grammatical structures before accumulating the meanings to form propositions (bottom-up processing); and top-down strategies referring to the listener and her/his use of mental processing; these strategies focus on the overall meaning of phrases and sentences and encourage learners to make use of real world schematic knowledge to develop expectations of text meaning (top-down processing). In a similar vein, Vandergrift (1999) presents listening strategies in three categories as metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socioaffective strategies. According to Vandergrift (1997), metacognitive strategies are defined as “mental activities for directing language learning” (p. 391) which include planning, monitoring, and evaluating one’s comprehension. These strategies refer to the thinking about the learning process such as selective attention and comprehension monitoring (also Goh, 1997, 1998). Buck (2001) presents a very similar definition to these strategies as “conscious or unconscious mental activities [such as assessing the situation and self-testing] that perform an executive function in the management of cognitive strategies” (p. 104). Cognitive strategies are “mental activities for

manipulating the language to accomplish a task” (p. 391) that involve applying specific techniques to the learning task such as elaboration and inference. Also Buck (2001) defines these strategies similarly as “mental activities related to comprehending and storing input in working memory or long term memory for later retrieval” (p. 104). Vandergrift (1997) also adds socioaffective strategies, which involve cooperating with other learners or the teacher for clarification, and/or employing specific techniques to decrease anxiety. These strategies include activities involving questioning for clarification, cooperation, lowering anxiety, self-encouragement, and taking emotional temperature. Whatever strategy may be referred to, in order to develop listening skills, it is crucial to employ listening strategies. It is vital for every single learner that s/he apply individual strategies according to her/his own learning (Mendelsohn, 1995).

Goh (2002) investigated the learners’ use of strategies and their sub categories that she names “tactics” and found out that in addition to the suggestions of the previous literature, two new strategies and their tactics, fixation and real-time assessment of input, are employed by learners. In a study by Abdelhafez (2006), the effect of particular strategies on developing listening skills was explored. The results showed that training in (metacognitive) strategies helped learners develop listening skills. In many other studies the findings indicated that more-proficient listeners used strategies more often than less-proficient listeners (e.g., Chao, 1997; Moreira, 1996; Murphy 1987; O'Malley, Chamot, & Kupper, 1989; Rost & Ross, 1991; Vandergrift, 1997b). More proficient listeners also employ wide variety of strategies and more

interactive strategies, and are able to activate existing linguistic knowledge to help with comprehension (Berne, 2004).

Using Different Techniques to Develop Listening. As mentioned earlier, being a complex skill because it requires heavy processing demands, how to develop listening is a subject of debate to many researchers. According to several researchers (e.g., Buck, 2001; Field, 2004; Goh, 2000; Graham, 2006; Rost, 2002; Tsui & Fallilove, 1998), learners should be trained in the aforementioned processes of listening, bottom-up and top-down processes, to use the both together because one alone is not enough to develop listening comprehension. Brown (2008) explains that in real-world listening bottom-up and top-down processes occur together, and which one is needed more depends on the purpose of the listening, the content of the input, learners' familiarity with the text type, and so forth. Wherefore, it is difficult to separate these two processes. Strategy use as a result of processing demands as mentioned before is also highly recommended (e.g., Mendelsohn, 1995; Lynch, 1995; Rixon, 1986; Ur, 1984). However, using strategies alone will not aid in improving this involved process. The previous literature suggests integrating various techniques into classrooms such as benefiting from authentic materials, and use of technology (e.g., Rixon, 1986; Rubin, 1995). Using technology can promote the development of listening comprehension by providing learners with compelling, interesting material (McBride, 2009; Rost, 2007) and it can also aid listening comprehension development by enhancing listening input (Chapelle, 2003). Using authentic materials include use of songs, TV serials, movies, documentaries; and using technology includes use of videos, computers, and the Internet. With this

respect, it is not difficult to conclude that authentic materials and technology are interwoven with each other since they are overlapping; in addition, technology is needed to operate authentic materials.

The use of authentic materials can provide natural input for listeners hence encouraged. On the other hand, debates held against the issue can be encountered as well. For example, Rixon (1986) discusses the possible drawbacks of authentic listening and suggests that, authentic materials are usually too difficult for most of the learners, especially for those at lower levels. In addition, she argues that authentic listening passages are not convenient enough to be used within classrooms since they are often too long. There are several researchers (e.g., Jansen & Vinther, 2003; McBride, 2011; Robin, 2007; Zhao, 1997) suggesting that making use of technology while using authentic materials (e.g., slowing rate of speech) is a way to overcome problems experienced with authentic materials.

There have been various research studies examining the effects of using technology and authentic materials within classes on listening comprehension. For instance, in his Master's Thesis, Özgen (2008) investigated the effects of captioned authentic videos on listening comprehension. The results indicated that learners watching the videos with captions scored significantly higher than the ones watching the videos without captioning. In their study exploring the efficacy of videos with subtitles on listening comprehension, Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) formed three groups: L1 subtitled group, L2 subtitled group and without subtitle group. The findings indicated that the group with English subtitles (L2 subtitled) outperformed the other groups.

Another important point to take into consideration is integrating different language skills in order to enhance the development of each skill. It is almost impossible to separate skills when conducting an activity in a lesson. A teacher needs to make use of listening while introducing a speaking topic, or s/he needs to employ vocabulary activities before a reading passage. Integrating skills will make the activities, classes more meaningful, motivate students and create interesting contexts. For listening, the case is similar. Many researchers (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Fotos, 2001; Hinkel, 2006; Murphy, 1991; Snow, 2005) emphasize the strength of integrated presentation over the segregated presentation of skills. Listening can be used as an aid to reading or speaking skills throughout different sections of classes; similarly, listening can benefit from particular skills like pronunciation. Developing listening skills with pronunciation is an efficient approach to follow in classes (Gilbert, 1995; Nunan & Miller, 1995. In this manner, especially considering the difficulty of listening because of the pronunciation problems mentioned earlier, it is advisable to teach and improve listening by blending it with pronunciation.

Pronunciation in ELT

Teaching pronunciation is an undulating trend in the field of ELT. There were periods of time in which pronunciation was the foremost skill to include in instruction as forming the basis of learning while there were periods of times in which it lapsed into dying (Brown, 1991; Celce-Murcia, 1996; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Today, most of the course books (e.g., Interactions series, Mc Graw Hill; Clockwise Advanced, Oxford University Press) include brief sections where

pronunciation tips are given; however, not every teacher follows these sections (Abercombie, 1991; Brown, 1991; Çekiç, 2007).

History of Pronunciation

Pronunciation was not heard of or spoken about in the very early period of ELT. In Grammar Translation method, pronunciation had no place in classes as it is known that the purpose of language teaching and learning was far away from pronouncing the language (Celce-Murcia, 1996). Reform movement changed the ideas and principles in the language classrooms which showed pronunciation the stairs to climb with the foundation of International Phonetic Association (IPA). It was with the use of *Direct Method* in the late 1800s and early 1900s that pronunciation started to be taught through imitation and intuition (Celce- Murcia, Brinton, & Goodwin, 1996). Teacher, as the role model was the source of input for students to imitate and repeat. With *Audiolingualism*, pronunciation gained considerable significance. However, in 1960s, pronunciation teaching lost its credit again, once more grammar and vocabulary gained the upper hand. According to Morley (1987), because of the discontent with the principles and practices of pronunciation teaching, many programs started to exclude teaching pronunciation. In 1980s, with communicative approach, there was a clear trend in teaching foreign language, and this trend moved toward teaching pronunciation again (Celce-Murcia, 1996). Since then, pronunciation has been included in language teaching. The perspective of language teaching aspires to communication; and this aim welcomes pronunciation in the teaching process with a goal of intelligible pronunciation and communication; nevertheless, practice within classes often veers off the road.

According to Brown (1991), “Pronunciation has sometimes been referred to as the ‘poor relation’ of the English language teaching (ELT) world... and usually swept under the carpet” (p.1). As also suggested by Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), “It [pronunciation] is granted the least attention in many classrooms” (p. 74) and unlike the voice of the literature, is usually neglected maybe because as Levis and Grant (2003) claim “despite the recognized importance of pronunciation, teachers often remain uncertain about how to incorporate it into the curriculum” (p. 13).

Definition and Importance of Pronunciation

Burgess and Spencer (2000) define pronunciation as “the practice and meaningful use of TL [target language] phonological features in speaking, supported by practice in interpreting those phonological features in TL discourse that one hears” (pp. 191-192). They remarked that, in pronunciation it is the nature of the process to practice listening and speaking by interpreting and producing phonological features respectively. So pronunciation as a skill includes both recognition and production.

In light of the foregoing information, it is not difficult to see the importance of pronunciation in a foreign language and its classrooms. Brown (1991) used the metaphor of a hi-fi system to show the importance of the pronunciation: “a hi-fi system is only as good as its weakest component. That is, low quality loudspeakers will disguise the fact that the amplifier, cassette deck, etc. may incorporate state-of-the-art technology” (p. 1). If a person has poor and unintelligible pronunciation, a successful communication cannot take place even if s/he has fluent speech with precise grammar and vocabulary use. Likewise, if a person is not aware of the

phonological features of the foreign language, it will be difficult to interpret what the speaker means; thus, it will not be easy to achieve smooth communication.

Therefore, pronunciation should be regarded as a crucial part of communication; since the focus of language learning is communication- at least in theory-, it should be integrated in classes (Brown, A., 1991; Brown, G., 1995, 1977; Celce-Murcia, 1996; Gilbert, 1995; Levis & Grant, 2003).

Components of Pronunciation

Pronunciation has two main components, also known as features; segmental and suprasegmental features. Segmental features include individual sounds; vowels and consonants. On the other hand, suprasegmental features include features beyond sounds; such as intonation, rhythm, and stress.

Segmental features of pronunciation. Segmental features are the separate sound units which also correspond to phonemes (Roach, 2009). These features may cause difficulties for learners, particularly if learners' mother tongue does not have some sounds English language has or if the place of articulation for the same sounds in native and target languages are different (e.g., Demirezen, 2011). In order to overcome such problems, Scarcella and Oxford (1994) suggest that utilization of sounds that is comparing target sounds with sounds in mother tongue may help students produce sounds better.

Whether to teach phonetic alphabet and phonemic transcription is an ongoing debate; if it is relevant to the needs of learners has not yet been proven. However, Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) advocate the presentation of phonemic

transcription because they think being competent with phonemic transcription will enable learners comprehend the pronunciation aspects both visually and aurally. Also presenting minimal pairs would be an effective way to teach how to differentiate among different sounds. Providing texts containing minimal pairs will contribute to mental coding of sounds in a meaningful context (e.g., Bowen, Madsen, & Hilferty, 1985; Celce-Murcia, 1996; Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). According to the current literature, (e.g., Mc Kay, 2002; Tarone, 2005) the pronunciation pedagogy today aims to teach learners to speak intelligibly, not to severely modify their accents. Henceforth, Hinkel (2006) claims “teaching has to address the issues of segmental clarity (e.g., the articulation of specific sounds), word stress and prosody, and the length and the timing of pauses” (p.116). According to Çekiç (2007), comprehensibility can be achieved by not only focusing on the segmental features but also, and more importantly, focusing on the suprasegmental features of pronunciation.

Suprasegmental features of pronunciation. Seidlehofer and Dalton-Puffer (1995) argue that suprasegmental features of pronunciation should be a prerequisite in pronunciation teaching, and the instruction should be designed accordingly. These features include the stress in words and sentences, rhythm, connected speech, intonation, and so forth.

Stress in a word or sentence can be seen in the form of syllables or words that are longer and higher in pitch. According to Crystal (2003), word stress “refer[s] to the degree of force used in producing a syllable. The usual distinction is between stressed and unstressed syllables, the former being more prominent than the latter”

(p. 435). In word stress, as also explained by Crystal, different syllables are emphasized and thus change the meaning they convey, i.e.: *REcord* (n) vs *reCORD* (v) or *conTENT* (adj.) vs *CONtent* (n). Field (2005) argues that, “if a misstressed item occurs toward the beginning of an utterance, it might well lead the listener to construct a mistaken meaning representation; this representation would then shape the listener’s expectations as to what was likely to follow” (p. 418) [opposing the view that the context will help the listener understand the word and/or the meaning in general]. In his research, Field (2005) concludes that “if lexical stress is wrongly distributed, it might have serious consequences for the ability of the listener, whether native or nonnative, to locate words within a piece of connected speech” (p. 419). Brown (2006) explains sentence stress as “the pattern of stress groups in a sentence (or utterance, since they are typically oral)” (p. 15). In sentence stress, the words that are important, usually content words like verbs and nouns are emphasized, i.e. *She CALLED me*. According to Kenworthy (1987), studies have shown that, when a native speaker cannot understand a foreign language speaker, it is not because the speaker has mispronounced the sounds in the words; it is because the foreign language speaker has put the stress in the wrong place. This argument associates with the reverse relation: if a learner / foreign language speaker cannot differentiate the stress patterns, it may cause him/her to misunderstand the utterances.

When word stress and sentence stress are combined accompanied by pauses, rhythm occurs (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996). Wong (1987) explained rhythmic features as “syllable length, stressed syllables, full and reduced vowels, pauses, linking and blending sounds between words, and how words are made prominent by accenting

syllables and simultaneously lengthening syllables” (p. 30). All these features together may cause difficulties for learners as it is challenging to discriminate rhythm even for the native speakers.

Linking and blending are also the features of connected speech. In connected speech, disappearing sounds- assimilation, appearing sounds-epenthesis and reduction of words (and many more sound changes) are widely heard.



To illustrate:

He has green eyes → *He has green eyes* /hi: hæz gri: naɪz/ (linking)

Did you ask my name? /dɪd/ /jə/ → /dɪdʒə/ (assimilation)

Do you remember Jill Smith? → *‘member Jill Smith?* (reduction-ellipsis)

Another crucial feature among suprasegmentals is intonation. According to Wong (1987), intonation is the outcome of variations in pitch. Roach (2009) finds this definition restricted and explains intonation as “in its broader and more popular sense it [intonation] is used to cover much the same field as ‘prosody’, where variations in such things as voice quality, tempo and loudness are included” (p. 56). Intonation has rising and falling patterns. For example:

 *Where are you going?*  *Are you leaving?*

In English, information questions (wh-) have falling intonation- voice goes down at the end. On the other hand, Yes/No questions have rising intonation- voice goes up at the end.

Suprasegmental features are the foremost components of pronunciation which convey the real meaning of a sentence. For example the following sentence is open to diverse interpretations:

She likes professor's classes.

If not in context, standing alone, this sentence may bear multiple interpretations. In a speech, it is the suprasegmentals that clarifies the meaning because the tone of the speaker as s/he utters the statement may imply tens of different meanings. The above given sentence may be uttered to ask a question: *Does she like professor's classes?* Without using interrogative form, using rising intonation in affirmative form can build questions. Similarly, as the tone of voice can be a strong indicator of the real message; it may signal that the speaker is just being ironic, meaning to say *she does NOT like the professor's classes.*

How to Teach Pronunciation

How to teach pronunciation is a subject of debate. Studies have differed in their findings in regards to whether formal instruction has an effect on pronunciation or not. For example, while the findings of some studies on accent indicated strong correlation between formal instruction and pronunciation (e.g., Flege & Fletcher, 1992; Moyer, 1999), some showed the opposite (e.g., Flege & Yeni-Komshiam, 1999) indicating the imprecise approaches towards the issue. Still, there is room for

implementing such instruction because the results of these studies may have stemmed from different research designs, or many different variables involved in instruction process. Schmidt (2006) supports the researchers who believe formal instruction of pronunciation should be conducted, and claims that, teaching pronunciation explicitly will help language learning not only in speaking and comprehending, but also in decoding and spelling.

According to Chela-Flores (2001), pronunciation teaching should begin with teaching rhythm. She argues that although it is perhaps the most difficult component of pronunciation, once the learners have a basic understanding of the rhythmic features, it will be easier for them to progress in other features of pronunciation which will ultimately give way to comprehensibility and comprehending ability.

Also the distinction between the content words and function words can be made familiar to students which will lead in grasping stressed words in a sentence easily. As mentioned earlier, content words in sentences carry stress and thus convey the meaning while the function words remain unstressed. This instruction can go along with vocabulary patterns and referring expressions such as pronouns (Çelik, 1999). In addition, there is correspondence between intonation contours, and clauses and phrases (Halliday, 1967). Therefore, Çekiç (2007) suggests that it is essential that units of intonation be taught in accordance with clauses and phrases which will fundamentally breed the competency in communicative skills.

Celce-Murcia, Brinton and Goodwin (1996) also suggest several techniques and practice materials on how to teach pronunciation:

1. Listen and imitate
2. Phonetic training
3. Minimal pair drills
4. Contextualized minimal pairs
5. Visual aids
6. Tongue twisters
7. Developmental approximation drills
8. Practice of vowel shifts and stress shifts related by affixation
9. Reading aloud/ recitation
10. Recordings of learners' production (pp. 8-10)

The above mentioned techniques and activities are commonly used by teachers when pronunciation is addressed. In a recent study by Jahan (2011), the most common difficulty identified by the teachers was that the students were influenced by their mother tongue to a great extent. The results of the study indicated that, most of the teachers helped students with their pronunciation by teaching them how to use dictionaries. In addition, the most frequently used activities by teachers were, 'imitation of sounds' and 'repetition drills' while the most popular activity according to students was 'tongue twisters' which was not often employed by teachers. Therefore, employing many different techniques in classes will be essential aids to teaching pronunciation.

There is a current view on English being the lingua franca, and the communication that takes place between people is mostly among non-native speakers of English, rather than between native speakers and non-native speakers (e.g.,

Canagarajah, 2005; Hinkel, 2006; Jenkins, 2000). Therefore, it is not expected from a learner to produce all aspects of pronunciation such as the connected speech; reduced forms, and so forth. Also, the consensus over the intelligibility purpose of pronunciation teaching suggests learning the target language pronunciation well enough to be able to communicate: speak intelligibly and comprehend what is uttered (e.g., Hinkel, 2006; Mc Kay, 2002; Tarone, 2005). In this respect, pronunciation teaching does not always need to focus on production to the full extent; rather it may focus on recognition; awareness raising activities. Such activities can include distinction exercises, as mentioned before.

Teachers can prefer to stick to only one form of teaching if they believe that is the right one for her/his learners, or s/he can refer to different techniques throughout her/his classes. One of the most important points to consider is that teaching should not be conducted in segregated segments, but in context with meaningful units whatever the level of language proficiency is (e.g., Chela-Flores, 2001).

Developing Listening by Teaching Pronunciation

Recalling that the difficulty in listening comprehension might stem from pronunciation, it would be wise to develop listening by raising language learners' pronunciation awareness. The previous literature suggests such relation; for instance, according to Brown (1977), English language learners going to Britain to study have problems understanding the professors' lectures resulting from the incompetency in pronunciation and failure to convert meaning. She believes comprehension of speech takes time for learners, because it is difficult for learners to understand how the

language is normally spoken, and the best way to overcome this problem is to familiarize learners with the style English is spoken in a *normal* environment; that is by teaching pronunciation. She argues that “coherent syntactic structures which the listener must process as units” (p.87) are the keys to understanding speech. Rixon (1986) lists the problem areas stemming from pronunciation in listening comprehension as (1) the difference between English sounds and spelling, (2) The sound changes in connected speech, (3) Rhythm of English, and (4) different pronunciation patterns of same sounds. She suggests that training in these problem areas can promote development of listening comprehension. Field (2003) also presents a similar list in which learners: a) may not recognize a phonetic variation of a known word, b) may know the word in reading but not in spoken vocabulary, and c) may not segment the word out of connected speech. He suggests that in order to solve these problems, awareness raising activities and focused practice should be employed. Gilbert (1995) asserts that, learners complain that native speakers speak too fast, but this problem arises because learners fail to grasp grammatical and discourse signals because they do not receive training regarding the reduction or intonation patterns of English language speech. Morley (1991) emphasizes that listening tasks based on speech-pronunciation would foster comprehension of listening by developing learners’ discrimination skills. Nunan and Miller (1995) also believe that listening can be developed by pronunciation. In their book showing new ways of teaching listening, they suggest several pronunciation activities in order to improve listening skills.

Developing listening is an ongoing pursuit of researchers and practitioners all around the world in ELT field. Although the literature suggests the possibility of developing EFL listening comprehension skills with pronunciation awareness, there have been very few research studies investigating the effect of pronunciation on listening comprehension. Brown and Hilferty (1986) (as cited in Brown, 2006) had their students practice reduced forms (that they collected from their own speech samples) accompanied by dictation activities for four weeks. At the end of the four week period, they found that their students' comprehension of reduced form sentences improved from 35% in the pre-test to 61% in the post-test. Similarly, Norris (1995) (as cited in Coşkun, 2008) investigated whether teaching reduced forms will have a positive impact on listening comprehension of Japanese students. The researcher presented the 20 common forms in Weinstein's "Waddaya Say?". Main activities employed were dictation and cloze exercises. In addition to these, Norris assigned his students to listen to natural English to enable them to get as much exposure as possible. At the end of this two-year longitudinal study, he observed that students' listening comprehension had improved a lot. In his study, Field (2005) concluded that, if lexical stress is distributed wrongly, it will have a negative effect on the listener's ability to locate words when in connected speech. Rosa (2002) in her research on teachers' attitudes on reduced forms, found that, most of the teachers believed that it would be helpful to teach reduced forms in improving students' listening comprehension; however, most of them usually spend only 10% or less of their classes on teaching those. Coşkun (2011) suggests that when all the challenges students face while listening to English are taken into account (these challenges, he reports, mostly stem from connected speech), students should be exposed to

connected speech which is a part of the natural language use. As can be seen from the abovementioned research, the literature suggests a relation between pronunciation awareness and listening; on the contrary, there were no empirical studies investigating the interrelation as a whole until Çekiç's 2007 study.¹

Çekiç (2007) completed his master's thesis (The Effects of Computer Assisted Pronunciation Teaching on the Listening Comprehension of Intermediate Learners) about the effects of computer assisted pronunciation teaching on listening comprehension in 2007 at Selçuk University. The participants were 45 Intermediate students at the School of Foreign Languages, intensive Preparatory School Program at Selçuk University. The purpose of the study was "to reveal the effects of conceptions of the pronunciation teaching on the listening comprehension level of the students" (p. 3). The researcher conducted the study in three groups; one control and two experimental (segmental and suprasegmental) groups. All groups were given pre-tests to determine their level of listening comprehension. The experimental groups received a 6-week treatment via *Tell Me More* and *Ellis Academic Master Pronunciation* computer programs while the control group continued the regular listening classes without pronunciation training. After the treatment, both groups took a post test (a different test at the same level with the pre-test) to find whether there was a difference between both test results of each group and the improvement, if any, of the groups. The results of the study showed that there was not a statistically significant difference between the pre and post test results of the control group while there was for both segmental and suprasegmental groups. However, the findings

¹ Although Perron (1996) also studied such relation, her research was on spoken varieties of Spanish in French native language context.

indicated that there was no statistically significant difference between the post test results of the three groups. The researcher attributed this lack of difference to limitations to the research design. Firstly, he argued that the time period for the study was not long enough to achieve development, and secondly, he stated that the pre-test results were not equal; segmental and suprasegmental groups' pre-test results were lower than those of the control group. Although the findings were not statistically significant, Çekiç's empirical study, proposing the hypothesis that it is possible to develop listening by teaching pronunciation provides evidence for such effect.

Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the relevant literature about possibility of developing listening comprehension with the help of pronunciation awareness training. The places of listening and pronunciation in the ELT field were discussed respectively. In addition, the interrelation of both skills was highlighted. The previous literature suggests such relation between listening and pronunciation, but there is limited research on the topic; in fact, the relation has not yet been statistically proven. Therefore, this study aims to investigate the effects of pronunciation awareness training on listening comprehension skills. Next chapter will present the methodology employed in the study providing detailed information about setting and participants, data collection including the data collection procedures, and the instruments and materials, and data analysis procedures.

CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The aim of this quasi-experimental study is to investigate the effect, if any, of pronunciation training on listening comprehension skills of tertiary level English as a foreign language (EFL) students. In this respect, the overarching research question addressed in this study is:

1. What is the effect of pronunciation awareness training on tertiary level Turkish EFL students' listening comprehension?

In order to answer this question, several sub questions will be added.

- a. Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group after a 6-week pronunciation awareness training?
- b. Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the control group after six weeks of regular intensive English classes?
- c. Is there a difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their development in listening comprehension at the end of the 6-week period?

This chapter provides information about the methodology of this study in four sections. In the first section, the setting and participants including the recruitment of the participants are described. In the second section, data collection is explained, including data collection procedures which give detailed information about the

procedures before the data collection period, such as the consent of the institutions; and the instruments and materials which give detailed information about developing and piloting the instruments. In the third section data analysis procedures are explained.

Setting and Participants

The present study was conducted at Gazi University, School of Foreign Languages. After the enrollment procedures, in September, students take a proficiency exam that is developed by the testing unit (with the assistance of all instructors), and are placed into levels according to their test results. Gazi University's Intensive English Program offers students 25 hours of lesson a week. The school follows integrated skills approach. Along with the core course, listening, reading, and writing skills are supplemented with particular books for each skill. The classes are equipped with technological devices and the teachers make use of these devices constantly. Regular video classes are held in which students receive natural input through movies in English. In each semester, students take three midterms. There are also quizzes administered throughout the fall and spring semesters. The scores of the quizzes and the midterms together make up the midterm grades and if students can score at least 70 out of 100, they are eligible to move on to their undergraduate studies in their own departments. If their midterm grades are below 70, they have to take the final exam to be successful in the intensive program.

The participants of the present study were Upper Intermediate level students. They started the semester at Intermediate level based on the proficiency test they took in September, and continued with Upper Intermediate level when Intermediate

level ended. There were two experimental groups and four control groups in the study. Since the teachers who accepted to have the training in their classes were not teaching another class at the same level, in order to eliminate the teacher factor during the training, the researcher used two control groups against one experimental group. In both experimental groups there were 14, in total 28 students. In the control groups there were 10 students in one of the classes, 14, 9 and 7 students in the other classes, in total 40 students. Table 1 shows the details about the participants.

Table 1

Participants

	Experimental Group		Control Group				Total
	Class 1	Class 2	Class 1	Class 2	Class 3	Class 4	
Female	10	11	7	10	8	5	51
Male	4	3	3	4	1	2	17
Total	14	14	10	14	9	7	68

All the students were following the same books; the core course book was Language Leader, Listening Encounters was followed for listening skills, for reading skills Reading Connections was followed, and the writing skills book was Introduction to Academic Writing.

Data Collection

Data Collection Procedures

Firstly, the researcher asked for the consent of Gazi University and the Intensive English Program. After agreements were granted, the researcher decided on which features of pronunciation to include in the training before preparing the materials. The researcher selected the features in terms of her seven-year experience and observation as a teacher within classes regarding the common problematic areas experienced by the learners.

Subsequently, the instrument; that is, the test that was used as the pre/post-tests was developed. Before starting the training, a pretest was applied to all students, and the treatment started the week after. The researcher herself gave the treatment due to the lack of volunteer teachers. The researcher conducted the lessons once a week, during the first two hours of one school day in the two experimental groups, respectively. The treatment lasted for six class hours; one class hour- 50 minutes- a week for six weeks. After the six-week treatment was completed, the post test was administered to all students. Figure 1 shows the data collection procedures.

Experimental Group	Control Group
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-test (list. comp.) • Treatment (six weeks.) Raising awareness of segmental and supra-segmental features of pronunciation. • Post-test (list. comp.) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-test (list. comp.) • Regular listening instruction following the course book, no special pronunciation training. • Post-test (list. comp.)

Figure 1. Data Collection Procedures

In addition, the researcher kept researcher diary-teacher logs in order to compensate for being both the researcher and the teacher after each class with the groups. These logs which were kept right after the each class, aimed to help the researcher become aware of any bias she held as a teacher researcher so that no bias could interfere in the process.

Instruments and Materials

The instrument (see Appendix 1) used in this study was a listening test which was used to determine the students' level of listening comprehension before and after the pronunciation training. The test contained 35 multiple choice questions requiring the participants to choose the best response from the options according to the statement they hear in the recording. The test was developed using the *Test Yourself* parts of *Sound Advice*. There were seven *Test Yourself* parts used in the test, each part including five questions, which made 35 questions in total. Three experts from the testing unit of Anadolu University and three students from the same university

were shown the test for face validity. Before applying, the test was piloted with 18 students from Anadolu University. In order to pilot the test, *test retest* method was used. The same test was applied to the same students at one week interval. The *Pearson Correlation* was .928 for test-retest analysis and the correlation was significant at $p < .01$ level, indicating that the reliability of the test was really high.

The material (see Appendix 2) for the training employed was a pronunciation training pack collected by the researcher from three different sources based on her past experience and observation as a teacher within classes regarding the common problematic areas experienced by the learners. The common problematic areas observed by the researcher were as follows:

- Sounds that do not exist or existing sounds with different places of articulation in Turkish language, such as the glottal stop (segmental features of pronunciation).
- Connected speech: reductions, contractions, special sound changes, stress patterns, and so forth (suprasegmental features of pronunciation).

These problematic areas were also pointed out by several researchers (e.g., Brown, 2006; Brown & Hilferty, 1986; Coşkun, 2011, 2008; Demirezen, 2011; Field, 2005). Acknowledging these problematic areas, the researcher developed the training pack including the segmental and supra-segmental features of pronunciation providing brief explanation or examples followed by exercises. The exercises included filling in the blanks, repetition, recognition / differentiation, and specific

details questions. The main source used while developing the pack was *Sound Advice: A Basis for Listening* (by Stacy A. Hagen, Longman) which is the first semester course book of the Listening and Pronunciation course followed at Anadolu University, Open Education Faculty, Department of English Language Teaching. The secondary sources used were *American Accent Training: A guide to speaking and pronouncing colloquial American English* (by Ann Cook, Barron's) and *Whaddaya Say?: Guided Practice in Relaxed Speech* (by Nina Weinstein, Longman).

Data Analysis

Data Analysis was done quantitatively via Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), which is a computer program that is used to analyze data in research studies in Social Sciences. Although there were two experimental and four control groups, the groups were combined and one experimental and one control group were formed. This change was made due to several reasons. First, the number of participants in each group was too small for data analysis via SPSS. Second, the fact that there were different classes in both experimental and control groups was not a variable in the research; there was not a different training in two experimental groups, they received the same training; therefore, the researcher was not interested in any difference that could have occurred due to other reasons than the subject training. In addition, the control groups continued their regular classes without different applications during classes.

In order to answer the research questions (R.Q.), first, both the pre and the post-tests were scored and all test results were entered into SPSS to analyze the data, and the researcher ran Paired samples *t-test* to examine if there was a statistically

significant difference between the pre and post-test results of the groups (R.Q.1a and R.Q.1b). In addition, an Independent samples *t*-test was administered to see if there is a statistically significant difference between two groups in terms of their development in listening comprehension (R.Q.1c).

Conclusion

In this chapter the methodology of the research was described in detail. The setting and participants, the instruments and materials used in the training as well as the data collection procedures were explained. The next chapter will present the findings coming from the data analysis of the research.

CHAPTER IV: DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

This study investigated the effects of pronunciation awareness training on the listening comprehension skills of tertiary level English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students at a state university in Turkey. The research questions addressed in the study were:

1. What is the effect of pronunciation awareness training on tertiary level Turkish EFL students' listening comprehension?
 - a. Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group after a 6-week pronunciation awareness training?
 - b. Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the control group after 6 weeks of regular intensive English classes?
 - c. Is there a difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their development in listening comprehension at the end of the 6-week period?

In order to answer these questions, two experimental groups and four control groups were formed at Gazi University School of Foreign Languages, Ankara, Turkey. All groups were administered a pre-test. After the pre-test, the experimental groups received a six-week pronunciation awareness training. Meanwhile, the control group continued their regular classes offered by the School of Foreign Languages. After six weeks, all groups were administered the same test as the post-test. The pre-

test was administered to see the level of the participants in both the experimental and control group, and the post-test was administered to examine the improvement the participants have made at the end of six weeks.

Data Analysis Procedures

After the pre and post-tests were administered, the first step in data analysis was to score the participants' test scores. Once all the scores were obtained, the data were entered into Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Before running the appropriate statistical tests in SPSS, the two experimental groups were combined to form only one experimental group. Similarly, four control groups were combined to form only one control group. There are two reasons for this analytical decision. First; the number of participants in the control and experimental groups was too small for data analysis via SPSS. Second, the fact that there were two different classes as the experimental groups was not a variable of concern in the present study since both experimental groups received the same training. Therefore, the researcher was not interested in any difference that could have occurred between the two experimental groups due to other reasons other than the training they received. Thus, '*class*' was not seen as an independent variable. The same rationale was adopted for the control groups, which did not receive any training at all. Thus, the differences among the control groups that might result from various reasons (e.g., individual differences) was not a concern of research. After the aforementioned adjustments were made, a Paired samples *t* test analysis was run to see the difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental and control groups. Later on, Independent samples *t*

test analysis was run to see if the increase the experimental group performed was statistically different from the control group.

Results

The results will be presented in accordance with the research questions of the study. First, the answer to the research question 1a, “Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group after a 6-week pronunciation awareness training?” will be presented, then the answer to the research question 1b, “Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the control group after six weeks?” will be discussed, and then, the answer to the research question 1c, “Is there a difference between the listening comprehension development of the experimental group and the control group at the end of the 6-week period?” will be introduced. By this way, the uttermost research question of this study, “What is the effect of pronunciation awareness training on EFL students’ listening comprehension?” will be answered.

Research Question 1a: The Experimental Group

In order to examine the difference between the experimental groups’ pre and post-test results, first, the descriptive statistics were calculated. Figure 2 shows the means of experimental group’s pre and post-test.

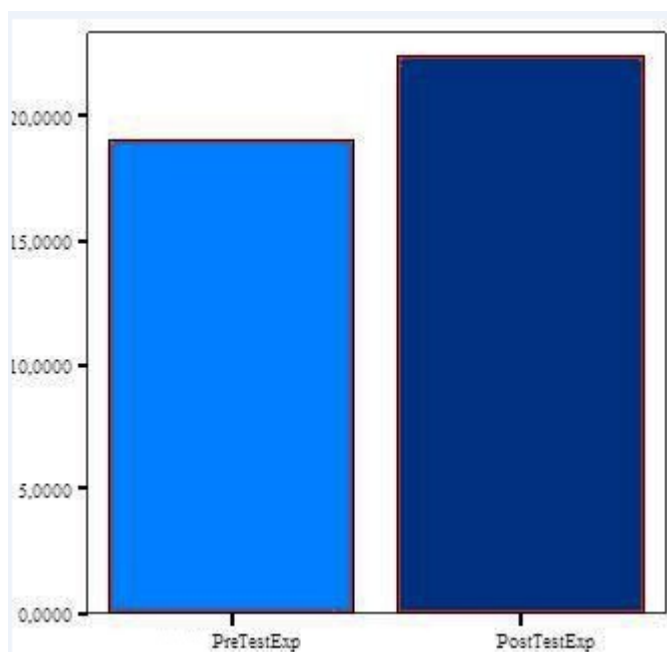


Figure 2. Pre and post-test means of the experimental group

According to the descriptive statistics, the post-test mean of the experimental group was higher than its pre-test mean. While the pre-test mean of the experimental group was 19.04, the post-test mean was 22.36. In order to see whether this increase is statistically significant, Paired samples *t* test analysis was run on SPSS (see Table 2).

Table 2

The Mean Difference between Pre and Post-test of the Experimental Group

Scores	T-test				
	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Pre-test	19.04	6.221	27	-5.994	.000*
Post-test	22.36	5.201			

p < .01 level.

As shown in Table 2, there was a statistically significant increase in the experimental group after the pronunciation training. According to paired samples t test results, there was a statistically significant difference between the pre-test results ($\bar{x} = 19.04$, $SD = 6.22$) and the post-test ($\bar{x} = 22.36$, $SD = 5.20$) of the experimental group at $p < .01$ level (\bar{x} difference = - 3.32, $p < .01$). In light of these results, it can be concluded that the pronunciation awareness training was effective in improving the experimental group's listening comprehension skills.

Research Question 1b: The Control Group

In order to examine the difference between the control groups' pre and post-test result, first the descriptive statistics were calculated. Figure 3 shows the means of control group's pre and post-test.

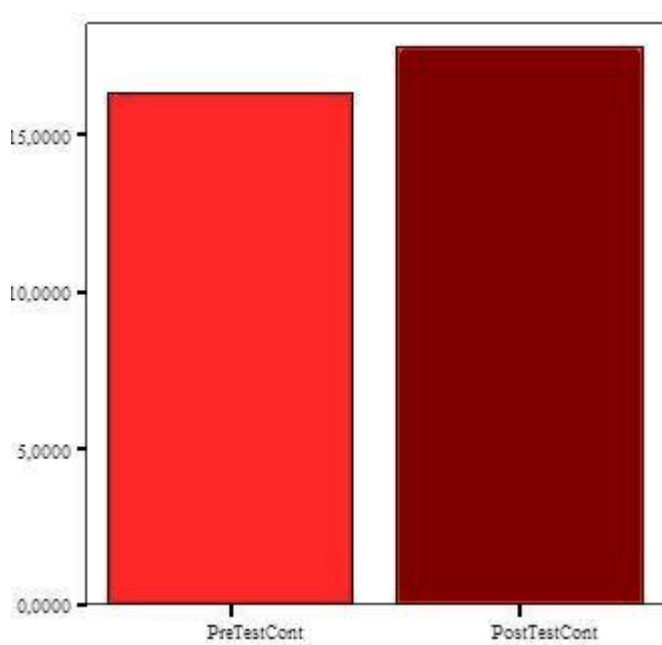


Figure 3. Pre and post-test means of the control group

According to the descriptive statistics, the post-test result of the control group is slightly higher than the pre-test result of the group (pre-test $\bar{x} = 16.33$, post-test $\bar{x} = 17.78$).

In order to see if the difference is statistically significant, a Paired samples t test was conducted. The t test analysis indicated that there is a statistically significant increase also in the control group after six weeks of regular classes. Table 3 shows the Paired samples t test result for the mean difference in pre and post-test results for this group.

Table 3

The Mean Difference between Pre and Post-test of the Control Group

Scores	T-test				
	\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Pre-test	16.33	3.90521	39	-2.438	.019*
Post-test	17.78	3.87952			

$p < .05$ level.

According to Paired samples t test results, the difference between the pre-test ($\bar{x} = 16.33$, $SD = 3.90$) and post-test results ($\bar{x} = 17.78$, $SD = 3.88$) of the control group is statistically significant at $p < .05$ level (\bar{x} difference for the control group = -1.45, $p < .05$).

As these results suggest, although the control group did not receive any particular training, but continued with their regular English classes, this group still

showed a statistically significant development. This result may be expected since the students in these classes were learning English in the intensive English program.

While this group made a 1.4 point increase after the six-week period, the experimental group made a 3.3 point increase. In order to understand if this difference between the two groups is statistically significant; that is, if the pronunciation awareness training was more effective than their regular classes, a further analysis was conducted.

Research Question 1c: Difference between the developments of both groups

As presented earlier, the experimental group's pre-test mean was 19.32, while the control group's pre-test mean was 16.33. The post-test means of the experimental and the control groups are 22.36 and 17.78, respectively. Figure 4 displays the means of both groups in pre and post-tests.

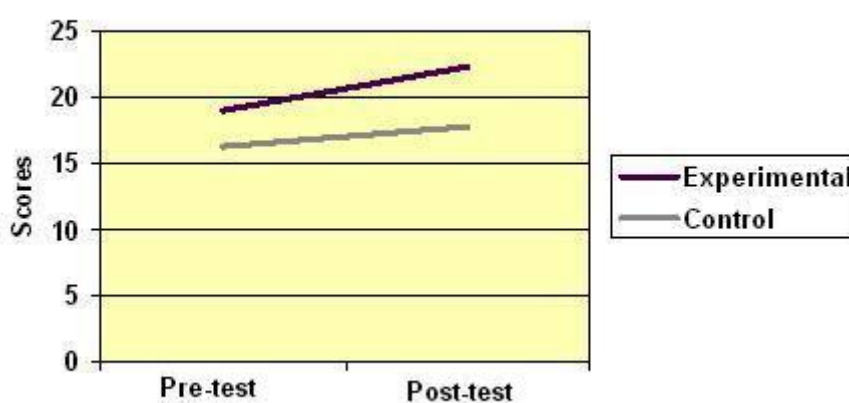


Figure 4. Pre and Post-test Means of the Experimental and Control Group

According to Figure 4, both the experimental and the control groups have performed a significant increase in the six week period even though only the experimental group received the pronunciation awareness training. However, the increase in the experimental group was expected to be higher due to the training they received. In order to see if the development of the experimental group after the training is more than that of the control group; that is, whether the mean difference in the pre and post-test results of the experimental group is significantly greater than that of the control group, first the increase that both the experimental and control groups have made was calculated. Figure 5 shows the increase each group has achieved.

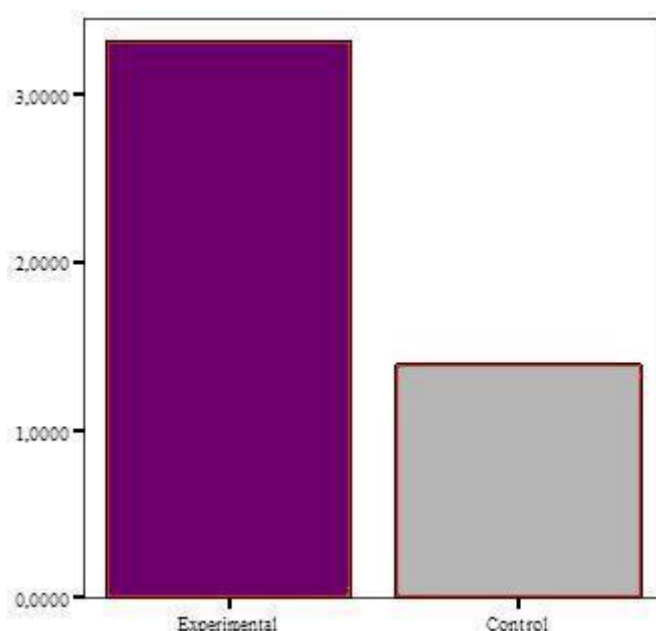


Figure 5. Difference between the developments of both groups

Figure 5 shows the difference in experimental and control groups' development after six weeks (increase of the experimental group = 3.32; increase of the control group = 1.45).

In order to see if this difference between the experimental group and the control group is statistically significant, the Independent samples *t* test analysis was conducted. Table 4 shows the difference between the developments of both groups.

Table 4

The Difference in the Developments of the Experimental and Control Groups

Increase	T-test				
	\bar{x}	<i>SD</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Experimental	3,32	2,93199	66	2,254	.028*
Control	1,45	3,78120			

$p < .05$ level (two tailed).

According to the Independent samples *t* test results, the development of the experimental group is higher than that of control group's suggesting that the training made a statistically significant difference in the increase of experimental group against the control group ($t(66) = 2, 25, p < .05$). The results indicate that even though both groups performed a development in their listening comprehension at the end of the six week period, this development was much larger in the experimental group due to the pronunciation awareness training they received.

However, since the pre-test means were different for the experimental and the control groups; that is, since the experimental and the control groups' levels were not

at the same level at the beginning of the study (see Figure 5), the findings might not have been interpreted correctly. Therefore, in order to eliminate this factor, a post hoc analysis was conducted with a new control group, the pre-test mean of which was similar to the experimental group. In order to have a similar control group, the researcher went over the individual scores in the pre-test scores of the control group and selected those students who scored similar to the ones in the experimental group. In this post hoc analysis, the new control groups' mean is 18.18, which is similar to the experimental ($\bar{x} = 19.04$). Figure 6 displays the pre and post-test means of the experimental and the (new) control groups.

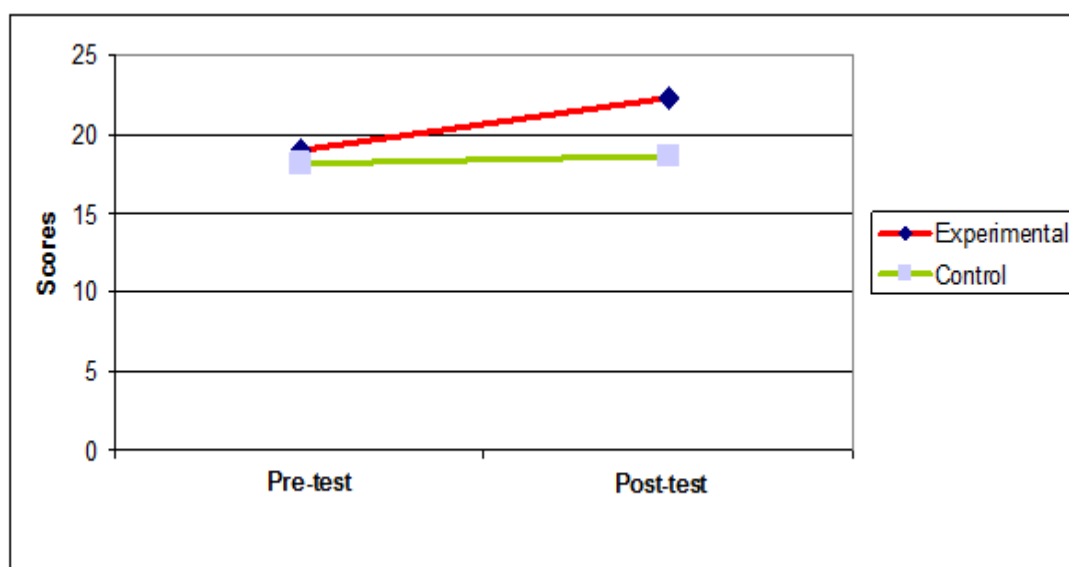


Figure 6. Pre and Post-test Means of the Experimental and Control Groups

As discussed earlier, there is a statistically significant difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group (pre $\bar{x} = 19.04$, $SD = 6.22$; post $\bar{x} = 22.36$, $SD = 5.20$, $p < .01$). With the new control group, paired samples t test analysis was conducted to see the difference between the pre and the post-test.

Table 5

The Mean Difference between Pre and Post-test of the New Control Group

Scores	T-test				
	\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Pre-test	18.18	2.99	27	-.704	.488
Post-test	18.64	3.64			

According to Table 5, the difference between the pre and post-test results of the control group is not statistically significant (pre \bar{x} = 18.18, SD = 2.99; post \bar{x} = 18.64, SD = 3.64). Still a further Independent samples t test analysis was conducted to examine if the developments of both groups (\bar{x} experimental = 3.32, \bar{x} new control = .46) are significantly different from each other. Table 6 shows the mean difference of both groups.

Table 6

The Difference between the developments of both groups

Development	T-test				
	\bar{x}	SD	df	t	p
Experimental	3.32	2.93199	54	3.317	.002*
Control	.46	3.49054			

$p < .01$

According to Table 6, the development of the experimental group is much higher than the development of the control group ($t(54) = 3.32, p < .01$). This supplementary analysis also reveals that there is a significant effect of pronunciation awareness training on listening comprehension. Therefore, it can be concluded that the findings indicating that the pronunciation awareness training has an effect on developing listening comprehension skills more than the regular English classes are accurate.

Conclusion

This chapter has presented information regarding the data analysis and the results. According to the statistical tests conducted by the researcher, there is a statistically significant increase in the experimental group after a six-week of pronunciation awareness training. In a similar way, the control group has also demonstrated statistically significant development after six weeks of regular classes. According to the findings, the development that the experimental group has performed is significantly higher than the control group. Thus, the results suggest that pronunciation awareness training has an effect on the listening comprehension skills of tertiary level EFL students.

The next chapter will discuss the results, limitations, pedagogical implications, and suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER V: CONCLUSION

Introduction

The aim of this quasi-experimental study was to investigate the effect of pronunciation awareness training on the listening comprehension skills of tertiary level English as a foreign language (EFL) students. In this respect, the research questions addressed in this study were:

1. What is the effect of pronunciation awareness training on tertiary level Turkish EFL students' listening comprehension?
 - d. Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental group after a 6-week pronunciation awareness training?
 - e. Is there a difference between the pre and post-test results of the control group after 6 weeks of regular intensive English classes?
 - f. Is there a difference between the experimental group and the control group in terms of their development in listening comprehension at the end of the 6-week period?

In order to answer these questions, two experimental groups and four control groups were formed at Gazi University, School of Foreign Languages, Ankara, Turkey. The sample size was 68, with 28 students in the experimental groups and 40 students in the control groups in total. All groups were administered a pre-test at the beginning of the study. After the pre-test, the experimental groups received a six-week pronunciation awareness training. In this 6-week period, the control group

continued their regular English classes without special pronunciation training. At the end of this six-week period, all groups were administered the same test as the post-test. The pre-test was administered to determine the level of the participants in both the experimental and control groups, and the post-test was administered to examine the improvement the participants have made at the end of six weeks.

The participants' tests were scored and the raw scores were obtained as the first step of data analysis. Secondly, all the test scores were entered into SPSS to analyze the data. Paired samples *t* tests and Independent samples *t* tests were conducted to examine the difference between the pre and post test scores across the experimental and control groups in order to answer the research questions.

In this chapter, the research findings will be discussed in detail referring to the relevant literature. In addition, pedagogical implications, limitations of the study, and suggestions for further research will also be presented.

Findings and Discussion

The findings and discussion relating to the results of the study will be presented in accordance with the research questions.

The Experimental Group

The results of the study indicated that, the experimental group improved their listening skills significantly at the end of the 6-week pronunciation awareness training (pre-test: $\bar{x} = 19.04$, post-test: $\bar{x} = 22.36$, development: 3.32, $p < .01$). This increase may be attributed to the pronunciation awareness training this group

received. As suggested by the literature (e.g., Brown, G., 1977; Brown, J.D, 2006; Coşkun, 2011, 2008), the teaching of spoken English in *normal* environment [naturally spoken language in everyday life] will help learners understand how the language is naturally spoken, and by this way the understanding of utterances will take place (Brown, 1977) (emphasis added). This argument by Brown (1977) implies that listening comprehension can be developed through training learners in the pronunciation contours, a claim that is in line with the literature on listening comprehension (e.g., Brown, 2006; Brown & Hilferty, 1986; Coşkun, 2011, 2008; Çekiç, 2007; Gilbert, 1995; Morley, 1991; Nunan & Miller, 1995; Rixon, 1986). In other words, since spoken language does not occur as in the taped recordings, the students are exposed to in classes, the difficulty of understanding real speech arises. Therefore, by providing the students with the spoken varieties of English language, greater success in listening comprehension can be achieved. A further discussion on the effectiveness of the training will be presented later in this chapter.

Another reason why there has been a development in the students' listening skills could be related to affective factors. According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), motivation in the classroom plays an important role in second language acquisition. Crookes and Schmidt (1991) suggest that varying the activities, tasks, and materials in classes would decrease boredom and increase interest in the classes (as cited in Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Therefore, the development in listening comprehension is attributable to the participants' interest in the classes throughout the 6-week period. Since the students were studying something new and different from what they were used to, they participated in the classes -thus the study- more

attentively. Yet, even though the improvement demonstrated by the experimental group was statistically significant, it is advisable that the findings be interpreted cautiously since the control group also exhibited such a significant development.

The Control Group

According to the results, the control group also developed significantly at the end of the 6-week period of regular English classes (pre-test: $\bar{x} = 16.33$, post-test: $\bar{x} = 17.78$, development: 1.45, $p < .05$). Even though the students in this group did not receive any particular training other than their regular intensive English classes, the fact that they improved their listening comprehension skills may be attributed to success of the English program offered by the institution.

The students at Gazi University, School of Foreign Languages are exposed to different interactive techniques in language teaching. The classes are equipped with technological devices and the teachers make use of these devices constantly. Regular video classes are held in which students receive natural input through movies in English. The way language is taught in the program is in line with the current literature on developing listening through authentic materials as well as the use of technology and communicative approach (e.g., Hayati & Mohmedi, 2011; Özgen, 2008; Rixon, 1986; Rubin, 1995).

Additionally, language teaching is presented in an integrated manner at Gazi University, School of Foreign Languages. Along with the core course, listening, reading, and writing skills are supplemented with particular books for each skill. This approach is also in accordance with the literature which emphasizes the integration

of skills in order to foster learning (e.g., Brown, 2001; Hinkel, 2006). Students in their supplementary listening classes practice listening strategies which is highly recommended in the literature (e.g., Berne, 2004; Chamot & Küpper, 1989; Henner-Stanchina, 1987; Jia & Fu, 2011; Murphy, 1985). Due to these reasons, the students may have made progress in their listening skills as the program also aims to foster.

Difference between the developments of both groups

As discussed above, both the experimental and the control groups demonstrated statistically significant development at the end of the 6-week period. When the development that both groups achieved was compared, the experimental group's development (3.32) was found to be higher than the control group's (1.45), a difference which was statistically significant. This finding is parallel to the literature on teaching listening which suggests that the integration of pronunciation awareness training into the teaching of listening is more effective in developing listening comprehension skills than solely employing traditional methods such as using technology or adapting listening strategies (e.g., Brown, 1977; Çekiç, 2007; Gilbert, 1995; Morley, 1991; Nunan & Miller, 1995; Rixon, 1986).

The reason behind the effectiveness of the pronunciation awareness training can be explained in reference to the previous literature on listening comprehension. The literature not only suggests integrating listening with pronunciation but also employing both the segmental and the suprasegmental features focusing on sound discrimination, intonation, stress, and so forth, all of which existed in the training. The pronunciation awareness training in the present study included both the segmental (e.g., Bowen, Madsen, and Hilferty, 1985; Celce-Murcia, Brinton &

Goodwin, 1996; Demirezen, 2011; Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011; Scarcella & Oxford, 1994) and suprasegmental features of pronunciation (e.g., Brown, 2006; Coşkun, 2011, 2008; Chela-Flores, 2001; Field, 2005; Halliday, 1967; Kenworthy, 1987; Seidlehofer & Dalton-Puffer, 1995; Wong, 1987). These researchers suggest that, the problematic sounds in the target language (because they do not exist in the native language or the places of articulation are different in target and native languages) should be presented to learners particularly in context, and the present study employed this presentation. In addition, the stress patterns of the target language are said to have a crucial role in pronunciation training because they are keys to not only accurate production (spoken skills), but also easy comprehension of the spoken input. Further, the ability to distinguish between content words and function words makes comprehensibility easier since it helps grasping stress and the meaning that is to be conveyed. One way to achieve this ability is to present these features in relation to vocabulary patterns and referring expressions. Acknowledging this suggestion in the literature, the training that was provided in the present study employed this component of pronunciation. In a similar vein, intonation training is of paramount importance for the same above mentioned reasons of comprehensibility and comprehending ability. Intonation was suggested to be taught in accordance with phrases and clauses; this present study engaged intonation practice accordingly in the training period.

As can be seen, the training pack of the present study employed various aspects suggested by the literature on pronunciation; it included different components of pronunciation and very importantly, it exploited the language scope;

that is integrated pronunciation teaching with other language skills (i.e. vocabulary, grammatical skills). Whence, it is implied in the findings of the study that the pronunciation training is expected to be effective in terms of raising pronunciation awareness since it applied all the suggested approaches.

What is more, the literature on listening comprehension suggests integrating listening with different language skills (e.g., Ellis, 2003; Fotos, 2001; Hinkel, 2006; Murphy, 1991; Snow, 2005) which is what this study tried to achieve. Pronunciation and listening were integrated to go beyond their own practices and aims, and the findings of the study revealed a very strong sign of the effectiveness of what it suggested: pronunciation awareness training as an aid to developing listening comprehension skills. When Field (2005) investigated the effect of lexical stress on the intelligibility and the listener, he concluded that stress play an important role in the comprehension of the utterance. Norris' 1995 study (as cited in Coşkun, 2008) examined teaching reduced forms to develop listening comprehension skills and found that the teaching of reduced forms made a difference in the pre and post-test results of his students. In addition, Brown and Hilferty (1986) (as cited in Brown, 2006) trained their students in reduced forms and found that their students developed their listening comprehension at the end of the four-week teaching of reduced forms. The findings of the present study are parallel with all these studies, although it did not test separate features of pronunciation; rather assigned segmental and suprasegmental features of pronunciation. Çekiç's (2007) study found statistically significant difference between the pre and post-test results of the experimental groups (both the segmental and the suprasegmental group) while the control group's

results did not reveal such difference (although the post-test results were not statistically different from one another). Even though the research designs were different (1. Çekiç's dividing the experimental groups into segmental and suprasegmental groups while the present study's investigating as a whole, 2. Çekiç's investigating computer assisted pronunciation teaching while the present study's examining pronunciation awareness training by a teacher) the findings of the two studies were parallel in both suggesting the effectiveness of pronunciation teaching on developing listening comprehension.

In light of the findings of the study, it can be concluded that this study confirms the previous literature on listening and pronunciation. In order to develop listening skills, it is important to adapt listening strategies, additionally, utilizing technology and opportunities for authentic input are strongly recommended. Integrating different language skills are encouraged in order to promote unity and meaningful instruction. Particularly, making learners familiar with the pronunciation of the target language by showing how real speech in an authentic environment occurs is what the literature suggests. This study draws closer to prove this suggestion by indicating that although regular classes aid the development of listening skills, pronunciation awareness training helps more.

Pedagogical Implications

According to the findings of the study, at the end of the 6-week period, both the experimental group and the control group significantly developed their listening comprehension. However, the development of the experimental group was significantly higher than the development of the control group. The fact that the

control group also performed a statistically significant development may be attributed to the effectiveness of the intensive English classes they received during the 6-week period. On the other hand, the significantly higher development of the experimental group can be ascribed to the pronunciation awareness training they received throughout 6-week period.

In light of these findings, the foremost implication of the study relates to the approaches in language teaching. Recalling the call for the integration of skills (see Ellis, 2003; Gilbert, 1995; Hinkel, 2006; Murphy, 1991; Nunan & Miller, 1995), pronunciation component of English language teaching can be accommodated in classes with more attention given to pronunciation, especially by integrating it with the listening skills since both skills contribute to each other. Also, suggested approaches in teaching pronunciation, such as minimal pair distinction activities or presenting features in context, can be followed to help students be successful in practicing this skills.

There has been a recent trend in the literature on listening which favors top-down processing and strategies over bottom up (e.g., Field, 2004). Nevertheless, since pronunciation awareness training is a type of bottom-up processing, the findings of this study (which is parallel to the previous literature, e.g., Brown, 2006; Coşkun, 2011) imply that bottom-up processing cannot be disregarded. Use of bottom-up strategies should be encouraged in classes, wherefore; teachers can focus on the small units of listening to reach the whole end.

Pronunciation has been the Cinderella component of English language teaching (term first introduced by Kelly, 1969), which has not received the attention

it deserves. This neglect may be because the teachers at language schools do not think pronunciation is important, or they do not feel competent enough to teach this skill. However, as this study has indicated, pronunciation plays an important role in the ELT world, particularly in developing listening skills. Therefore, another implication of this study may relate to the teacher training programs. Prospective language teachers might be trained in current approaches regarding listening and pronunciation, and if needed further pronunciation training can be applied. Some teachers might prefer a different teacher such as a visiting teacher to do pronunciation training, which might be also included in the professional development programs.

To conclude, all stakeholders, the administrators, curriculum designers, material developers, and teachers can draw on the findings of the present study to shape curricula, create syllabi, develop materials, and conduct classes accordingly.

Limitations

There are a number of limitations to the present study suggesting that the findings should be interpreted with caution. To begin with, the study had to be conducted in a limited time period, so the training lasted only six weeks. Although some development has been observed in both groups, a 6-week period is not enough for a language skill to develop, especially for listening, which is one of the most difficult skills.

Another limitation was that the classes participants were studying in were not determined by the researcher right before the research; they were already set by the institution at the beginning of the first semester. Therefore, individual differences among the classes were not controlled by the researcher, limiting the generalizability of the findings. Also, the present study was conducted only with Upper Intermediate level students; it may not be possible to generalize the findings since the results might change with different proficiency levels.

Suggestions for Further Research

As discussed above in the limitations of the study, a 6-week period is not enough for a language skill to develop. Therefore, for future research studies, the period can be extended and the training can be applied for a longer time period.

In addition, the present study was conducted with only upper intermediate level participants, for further studies a wider scope of samples can be employed and different proficiency levels might be examined. Similarly, the sample size can also be expanded, there were 68 participants in the present study, in order to reach more generalizable findings a larger sample size can be assigned.

This research study investigated the pronunciation teaching as a whole, by combining segmental and suprasegmental features, but for future research, the segments and the constituents of the segments of pronunciation can be investigated further in different research designs; such as having three experimental groups: one group segmental features, another group studying suprasegmental features, and the last group studying both segmental and suprasegmental features to see which one of

them aids listening comprehension more. In a similar vein, how to teach pronunciation can also be examined and the different methods of teaching can be compared.

Conclusion

This study revealed that pronunciation awareness training is effective in developing listening comprehension skills of tertiary level EFL students. Even though both groups have made progress in their listening skills at the end of the research period, the experimental group's development is statistically much higher than the control group which indicates the aforementioned finding: the effect of pronunciation awareness training on listening comprehension skills.

This finding is in accordance with the literature which highlights the relationship between pronunciation and listening. Although this relationship has been proposed by several scholars (e.g., Brown, 1977; Gilbert, 1995; Morley, 1991; Nunan & Miller, 1995; Rixon, 1986), the research studies (e.g., Brown & Hilferty, 1986) focused only on suprasegmental features of pronunciation. There was only one empirical study which tried to prove such relation as a whole (Çekiç, 2007). In that study, Çekiç investigated the effects of pronunciation on listening comprehension via computer assisted teaching, while the present study investigated the effects of pronunciation with regular training given by a teacher.

Although there were limitations to the study, this research might provide practitioners with a new approach in English language teaching. The neglect of pronunciation in classes and the pursuit of ways to develop listening skills are well

known facts in this field, especially in Turkey. Therefore, this study may call and if catch the attention of practitioners, it can assist language learners to overcome the problems they face regarding this particular skill while learning the target language.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Pre/Post Training Test

Pre-training Test

Teacher's Copy

Name:

Class:

Listen to each statement and choose the best response.

Part 1

1. (Mind if I join you?)²

a) Sure, have a seat.

b) Yes, I did.

c) Yes, it's mine.

2. (Do you remember Jack Wright, our old marriage counselor?)

a) Not really

b) Next week

c) What about Mary's counselor?

3. (Do we have enough time?)

a) We've got ten minutes.

b) At 1:00

c) In one hour.

4. (Did you sign up for the aerobics class?)

a) I think I'll work out in the gym instead.

b) All the language classes are full.

c) I've already taken Arabic.

² Questions were not written on the students' copy.

5. (Do you want to walk or drive?)

- a)** Yes.
- b)** Drive.
- c)** Maybe.

Part 2

1. (That's an expensive looking car)

- a)** No, it's expensive.
- b)** Yes, it was inexpensive.
- c)** Actually, it wasn't so expensive.

2. (Mind if I take these seats?)

- a)** Yes, he had to.
- b)** No, they can't.
- c)** No problem.

3. (How far is it to the mall?)

- a)** It's about 15 minutes away.
- b)** Yes, it's for me.
- c)** That's a great plan.

4. (Care for another drink?)

- a)** No, I don't care.
- b)** I'd love one.
- c)** I was careful.

5. (What's it matter?)

- a)** It doesn't.
- b)** I'm tired.
- c)** Because she failed her test.

Part 3

1. (What can't you do?)

- a)** I can't ski.
- b)** He can't swim.
- c)** I can speak Chinese.

2. (Is this food fattening?)

- a)** It has a lot of calories.
- b)** I like it, too.
- c)** I'm a little overweight.

3. (I hurt my arm when I was working out)

- a)** I heard the alarm, too.
- b)** That's too bad.
- c)** I heard he hurt himself at school.

4. (That movie was a waste of money)

- a)** I don't like movies about money.
- b)** I didn't like it either.
- c)** I enjoyed it, too.

5. (The reading assignment begins at page 315)

- a)** Three hundred fifty pages is too much.
- b)** Why do we have to meet at 3:15?
- c)** How much time do we have until it's due?

Part 4

1. (Where has he been?)

- a)** She's at school.
- b)** In the library.
- c)** He's pretty happy.

2. (Did you help him get his work done?)

- a)** They were already finished.
- b)** Yeah, but he only had a little left to do.
- c)** They did it all yesterday.

3. (What's your address?)

- a)** Size 12.
- b)** Blue.
- c)** 412 1st street.

4. (When is his graduation?)

- a)** I think he's graduating next week.
- b)** He's getting a Ph.D.
- c)** I think she's already graduated.

5. (Does he have everything for his trip?)

- a)** I think he's ready.
- b)** She needs more money.
- c)** Next week.

Part 5

1. (Wasn't the hotel supposed to give us an air-conditioned room?)

- a)** It has a lot of room.
- b)** I found it.
- c)** I'll check.

2. (Did you get a ticket for speeding?)

- a)** Because I drive carefully.
- b)** Me? No way.
- c)** Maybe it's in your pocket.

3. (Which of the two books would be better for children?)

- a)** The third one.
- b)** They're both good.
- c)** Only in the children's section.

4. What day would be good for your picnic?)

- a)** 1999.
- b)** At the beach.
- c)** Saturday.

5. (How many people did you tell the story to?)

- a)** You're the first one.
- b)** They thought it was great.
- c)** I'll tell 15.

Part 6

1. (Could I get change for a dollar?)

- a)** I'm changing
- b)** I don't have any.
- c)** For a change.

2. (What's in that little box ver there?)

- a)** It's a surprise.
- b)** I think so, too.
- c)** It's in the corner.

3. (Are you sure these dates and times will be OK for you?)

- a)** Sorry, I don't know the time.
- b)** It's tomorrow at one.
- c)** They're fine for me.

4. (Would you like some help with the dishes?)

- a)** Actually, I don't mind doing them myself.
- b)** I might need more.
- c)** They don't need more.

5. (It sure is hot in here)

- a)** Let me close the window.
- b)** I'll turn down the heat.
- c)** Yes, it is hotter there.

Part 7

1. (What'll it be?)

- a)** I'll have a shake.
- b)** It looks nice.
- c)** That'd be great.

2. (How will I know my order is ready?)

- a)** Tom will.
- b)** We'll call your number.
- c)** In five minutes.

3. (What have you got that isn't too fattening?)

- a)** Yes, we sure do.
- b)** Of course you can.
- c)** We have some salads over there.

4. (Isn't this burger supposed to have onions on it?)

- a)** Sorry, we made a mistake.
- b)** The burgers are great.
- c)** We'll cook it more.

5. (How long will it take to get an order of fries?)

- a) No time at all.
- b) Three orders.
- c) I'd recommend it.

Appendix 2: Pronunciation Awareness Training Pack

REDUCTIONS

- **Ellipsis** In words with more than two syllables, a sound may be dropped completely. This is called *ellipsis*. Sometimes, the first unstressed syllable in a word, or the first word/words in a sentence can also be dropped.

Because ['cause]

About ['bout]

Remember ['member]

Exactly ['xactly]

Do you care for a drink? ['care]

I beg your pardon ['beg]

It sounds good ['sounds]

Are you leaving? ['you/ ya]

Have you got a minute? ['got]

Would you mind if I open the window? ['mind]

Exercise 1- Listen to these short conversations. Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (Track 2)

Two Friends

1. A: What's your **favorite vegetable**?

B: **Bananas**.

A: That's not a **vegetable**. That's a fruit!

2. A: Did you go to the **bakery**?

B: I forgot. My **memory** is terrible.

Exercise 2- Read the words and predict the missing sound. Then listen and check your answers. (T3)

Example: mathematics [math'atics]

- | | |
|-------------|--------------|
| 1. trav'ler | 4. fact'ry |
| 2. 'nough | 5. couns'lor |
| 3. 'nstead | |

Exercise 3- Listen and guess the missing words. (T4)

1. Have you got some extra?
2. Do you know much about it?
3. It sounds expensive.
4. Do you (re)'member the answer?
5. Is something the matter?
6. Do you care or another one?
7. Do you mind if I sit here?
8. Do you want to join us?
9. Does it matter much if I go?
10. Did you sleep too long?

- **More Reduction**

Function Words- articles, prepositions, pronouns, conjunctions, and auxiliary verbs are often reduced.

Do they think so?

I know *for* sure

I hear *you*

Talk *to* me

Do you know?

Going to [gonna]

Want to [wanna]

Have to [hafta]

Coffee or tea	[cofee'r tea]	walk or drive	[walk'r drive]
Stop and go	[stop'n go]	come and look	[come'n look]
More than I got	[more'n I got]		

Exercise 4- Listen to the sentences and fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T5)

At the airport

1. We have to check in here.
2. Do you want to watch the planes?
3. Look at this line. We're never going to make it.
4. Are they going to serve food?
5. When are we going to arrive?
6. We have to fasten our seatbelts now.
7. Do you want to sit by the window?
8. We have to go through customs.

Exercise 5- Listen to the sentences with "and" and "or". (T6)

1. Are you open or closed?
2. Will you pass me the cream and sugar?
3. Is that a seven or one on the bill?
4. This table and that one are open.
5. Did you say both coffee and milk?

Exercise 6- Choose the word you hear. (T7)

At the post office

1. and or Is that regular or express mail?
2. and or Did you say a sheet or book of stamps?
3. and or Do you have a driver's license and one another ID?
4. and or Does this weigh more or less than an airmail letter?

Review

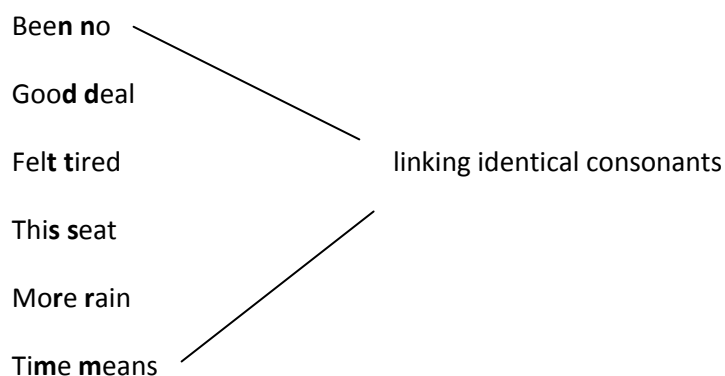
Exercise R1- Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T8)

Food Talk

1. A: Care for another helping?
B: I couldn't eat another bite.
2. A: I'd like a hamburger and chocolate shake.
B: For here or to go?
3. A: What do you want to order for dessert?
B: Let's ask to see the dessert menu.
4. A: Where did you learn to cook like this?
B: I grew up in a family of cooks.
5. A: Why aren't you eating your vegetables? I thought these were your favorite.
B: They taste kind of different.
6. A: Let's stop at the bakery and get s some pastries.
B: I don't think there's 'nough time.

LINKING

How much is it?	[how muh chih zit?]
She's on the phone.	[she zahn the phone]
What's up?	[what sup?]
Come on in.	[c'mo nin]
Am I late?	[Mi late?]
If it's O.K., I'm leaving.	[Fits O.K. ...]
Does it work?	[Zit work?]
Is it ready?	[Zit ready?]



Exercise 1-Listen to these common questions and fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T9)

Teacher to Students

1. Am I going too fast?
2. Does it make sense?

Students to Teacher

3. Am I late?
4. What's it mean?

About the Weather

5. Is it raining out?
6. Does it look like rain?

Exercise 2- "Is it" and "Does it" sound very similar. They are often both pronounced "zit". Use the grammar of the sentence to help you tell them apart. (T 10)

Questions at Dinner

1. Is it Does it Does it need more salt?
2. Is it Does it Is it O.K.?
3. Is it Does it Is it too hot?
4. Is it Does it Does is taste good?

Questions at a Department Store

5. Is it Does it Is it on sale?
6. Is it Does it Does it look O.K.?

7. Is it Does it Is it too big on me?

8. Is it Does it Does it come in any other colors?

Exercise 3- Listen to the conversation between a husband and a wife. Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T 11)

What to Eat?

M: Are there any eggs left?

W: I think we ate them all .

M: Darn, I wanted to make an omelet.

W: What about heating up some of that leftover chicken?

M: No, I'm tired of rice. Any other ideas?

W: Yeah. Let's go out!

SPECIAL SOUND CHANGES

- **The flap:** When **t** and **d** occur between vowels, they are pronounced as **flaps**.

Butter

Idiom

What else

How to do it

Got to

Between a vowel and **l** or **r** , **t** may sound like **d**.

Title

Hurt a lot

Exercise 1- Listen and underline the "flap" or "d" in these words and phrases. (T 12)

1. little

2. bottle

3. water

4. Seattle

5. better

6. Saturday

7. idiot

8. not at all

9. pretty

10. whatever

11. righttaway

12. hott or cold

13. waitt'll (wait until)

14. go to the

15. cut t it out

Exercise 2- Listen to these short conversations and fill in the blanks with the words you hear.

At the Gym (T 13)

1. A: Have you exercised enough for today?
B: No. I'm not at all tired.

At School

2. A: I need to go to the bookstore right away.
B: I'll go with you.

In the Kitchen

3. A: Do you want the water hot or cold?
B: hot is good.

At a Restaurant

4. A: Why isn't anyone waiting on us?
B: I'll go try to find a waiter.

Exercise 3- "What are you" and "What do you" are both pronounced "whaddaya". The "d" is a flap. Use the grammar of the sentence to help you tell the difference. Listen to these sentences. Choose the correct answer.(T14)

- | | | |
|------------|--------|---|
| 1. are you | do you | What do you want for dinner tonight? |
| 2. are you | do you | What are you thinking about right now? |
| 3. are you | do you | What do you need to do tomorrow? |
| 4. are you | do you | What do you like to do after school? |
| 5. are you | do you | What do you like watching on T.V.? |
| 6. are you | do you | What are you planning for the weekend? |

Exercise 4-Listen to these short conversations. Fill in the blanks with the word you hear.

Two Friends (T 15)

1. A: Wait'll you see what I'm giving you for your birthday!
B: Cut it out ! My birthday is six months away.

2. A: I love your jacket.

B: Thanks. I **bought it** on sale.

A: Where did you **get it**?

B: **At a** little shop down the street.

A: I **need a** new coat.

B: You **ought to** go there. I'll show you where **it is**.

- **-ty / teen** There are two ways to tell the difference between **-nt** and **-teen**. One is from stress; the other is from a sound change to *d*.
With **-ty**, the sound changes to *d*, and the first part of the word is strong.

With **-teen**, the second part of the word is strong, and there is no sound change.

Thirty	[THIR dy]
Thirteen	[thir TEEN]
Eighty	[EIGH dy]
Eighteen	[eigh TEEN]

Exercise 5- Listen and complete the sentences. (T 16)

1. June has **30** days.
2. In a 10-minute cartoon, about **15000** pictures must be made.
3. An average man has about **14000** whiskers on his face.
4. The U.S. flag has **50** stars and **13** stripes.

- **-nt reduction** When **nt** occurs in a word, many speakers omit the **t** and use a flapped *n*

Twenty	[twenny]
County	[couny]
Identify	[idenify]
Wanted	[wannid]

Exercise 6- Underline where you expect to hear the flap sound in these common phrases. Listen and check your answers. (T 17)

1. dentist appointtment
2. enter quietly
3. mental health
4. doesn't matter
5. medical center
6. rentatal car

- **The glottal stop** Many native speakers use a special sound to replace *t*. It is called a **glottal stop**. It most often occurs when *t* is followed by the syllable *n*.

Waiting [wai'n]

Eaten [ea'n]

Getting [ge'n]

Fattening [fa'ning]

A glottal stop can also replace a syllable.

Important [impor'n]

Something [su'm]

Exercise 7- Listen to these common words and phrases. (T 18)

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------|
| 1. sentence | 5. certain |
| 2. mountain | 6. written |
| 3. carton of milk | 7. something |
| 4. cotton shirt | 8. gotten |

Exercise 8- Listen to these short conversations. Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T 19)

At Work

1. **A:** There's a meeting scheduled at 11:00.
B: I'm sorry, but I've got something else planned.

At a Café

2. **A:** Sorry I'm late. What's heppening?
B: Not much. We're just waiting for someone to take our order.

At the Hair Stylist

3. **A:** Why don't we lighten your hair?

B: Oh, no. I want to keep in natural.

At School

4. **A:** That food in the cafeteria made me thirsty. I need to find a drinking fountain.

B: I'm really thirsty, too. I wish we hadn't eaten such salty food.

- **Can/Can't** "can" is unstressed, the main verb is stressed. In the negative form, both "can't" and the main verb is stressed. The **t** in "can't," however, is dropped, and the final sound is pronounced as a glottal stop.

I **can** go. [I *kn* go.]

I **can't** go. [I KAN' go.]

Exercise 9- Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T 20)**At a Hotel**

1. Where can we get a good meal?
2. Can I change my money here?
3. Can't we use the Jacuzzi tonight?
4. What's the latest we can get room service?
5. Can I get a wake-up call in the morning.
6. Can't you give me a non-smoking room?
7. What's the earliest we can get the airport shuttle?

- **Of** Because "of" is a function word, it is commonly reduced to **ə**.

Sick of [sickə]

Kind of [kində]

Some of [someə]

A lot of [flap + ə]

Out of [flap + ə]

When linked to a vowel, the sound is *uv*

All of us [alluvus]

Think of her [thinkuver]

Out of order [outuvorder] [outaorder]

Exercise 10- Listen to these phrases. (T 21)

- | | | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|---|
| 1. sick of work
sick of school | 2. a waste of money
a waste of time
a waste of energy | 3. out of shape
out of state
out of work
out of date
out of this world | 4. a little of this
a little of that |
|-----------------------------------|---|--|---|

Exercise 11- Fill in the blanks with the words you hear.(T 22)

“Where have you been”

1. I’ve been out of town for a few days.
2. At the gym. I’m so out of shape.
3. Traveling out of the country on business.
4. Looking for a job. I’ve been out of work for a week.

Exercise 12- Listen to the conversation and fill in the blanks with the words you hear.(T 23)

Two Friends at Work

A: What are you doing for lunch?

B: I thought I’d go run around the track. Would you like to join me?

A: To be honest, I’m out of shape. After just a few minutes, I’d be out of breath.

B: Well, that’s the best reason to go running. So you can get better.

A: Then I need to find some other kind of exercise. I’ve never really been fond of running.

SILENT h at the beginning of function words, **h** is usually dropped and the word before is linked.

See her [see-er]

Did he [dide] / [de]

Does he [dze] / [ze]

It's his [It'siz]

For him [forim]

For them [forem]

* She had [she-ad] **h** can be dropped even when "have" is a main verb.

Exercise 13- Listen to the sentences and fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T 24)

1. Did his manager leave? / Did his sister come?
2. Does he speak English? / Does he work long hours?
3. What's his name?
4. What does he want?
5. I saw him at home. / yesterday.

Exercise 14- Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T 25)

Is Mr Abbot available?

1. I'm sorry, but he's on another line.
2. He's not available, but I can have him call you later.
3. He's away from his desk, but he's expected back soon.
4. He's not in at the moment, but I can transfer you to his voice mail.
5. I think he's down the hall. Let me check.
6. I'm not sure. Let me look at his calendar.

Exercise 15- Choose the phrase you hear. (T 26)

- | | | |
|----------|---------|--|
| 1. Is he | does he | does he live in your country? |
| 2. Is he | does he | is he a movie star? |
| 3. Is he | does he | does he work hard? |
| 4. Is he | does he | does he like to appear in public? |
| 5. Is he | does he | is he a nice person? |

- **Assimilation with y** In English when two sounds are linked, they sometimes change.

t + y = ch (as in change)

d + y = j (as in judge)

s + y = sh (as in ship)

z + y = zh (as in zhision)

Don't you [don-cha]

Would you [wu-ja]

Miss your [mi-shur]

How's your [how-zhur]

What are you [whachya]

What did you [whaja]

When the letter or sound of T, D, S, or Z is followed by a word that starts with Y, or its sound, both sounds are connected. These letters and sounds connect not only with Y, but they do so as well with the initial unwritten [y].

Repeat the following.

T + Y = CH

What's your **name**?

[wəcher **name**]

Can't you **do** it?

[kænt chew **do(w)**it]

Actually

[æk·chully]

Don't you **like** it?

[dont chew **lye** kit]

Wouldn't you?

[**wooden** chew]

Haven't you? No, not **yet**.

[**hæven** chew? nou, nä **chet**]

I'll let you **know**.

[I'll letcha **know**]

Can I get you a **drink**?

[k'näi getchewə **drink**]

We thought you weren't **coming**.

[we thä chew wrnt **kəming**]

I'll bet you **ten** bucks he forgot.

[æl betcha **ten** buxee frgät]

Is **that** your final **answer**?

[is **thæchr** fin'**læn** sr]

natural

[**næchrəl**]

perpetual

[perpechə(w)əl]

virtual

[vrchə(w)əl]

D + Y = J

Did you **see** it?

[didjə see(y)it]

How did you **like** it?

[hæo•jə lye kit]

Could you **tell**?

[kūjə tell]

Where did you send your **check**?

[wərjə senjer check]

What did your **family** think?

[wəjer fæmlee think]

Did you find your **keys**?

[didjə fine jer keez]

We followed your **instructions**.

[we fallow jerin stræctionz]

Congratulations!

[k'ngræj'lationz]

education

[edjə-cation]

individual

[indəvijə(w)əl]

graduation

[græjə(w)ation]

gradual

[græjə(w)əl]

S + Y = SH

Yes, you are.

[yeshu are]

Insurance

[inshurance]

Bless you!

[blesshue]

Press your **hands** together.

[pressure hanz d'gethr]

Can you **dress** yourself?

[c 'new dreshier self]

You can pass your **exams** this year.

[yuk'n pæsher egzæmz thisheer]

I'll try to guess your **age**.

[æl trydə geshierage]

Let him gas your **car** for you.

[leddim gæshier cār fr you]

Z + Y = ZH

How's your **family**?

[hæozhier fæmlee]

How was your **trip**?

[hæo-wəzhier trip]

Who's your **friend**?

[hoozhier frend]

Where's your **mom**?

[wərzh'r mām]

When's your **birthday**?

[wenzh'r brthday]

She says you're **OK**.

[she sēzhierou kay]

Who does your **hair**?

[hoo dāzhier her]

casual

[kæ-zhyə(w)əl]

visual	[vi·zhyə(w)əl]
usual	[yu•zhyə(w)əl]
version	[vrzh'n]
vision	[vizh'n]

Exercise Fill in the blanks with the words you hear

1. did you
2. who's your
3. just your
4. gesture
5. miss you
6. tissue
7. got your
8. where's your
9. congratulations
10. had your

Exercise 16- Complete the sentences with the words you hear (T 27)

Two Friends

1. A: When's your date with the new guy from work?
B: How did you know about that?
A: You told me last week!
2. A: What are you thinking about?
B: I'm just daydreaming.
3. A: Would you like to see a movie on Friday?
B: I think so, but you might want to check back with me later. I may have a conflict.
4. A: What are you looking at?
B: You! I like to watch you smile.

CONTRACTIONS

I'll	[ahl]	We'll	[wul]
You'll	[yul]	They'll	[thul]
He'll	[hil]	I'm	[ahm]
She'll	[shil]	You're	[yer]

They're=there=their

will	Tom'll	Book'll
How'd – did	Sue'll	That'll
Where've – have	Teacher'll	This one'll
It'd look great	would	
That'd be fine	would	
It'd better rain	had	
That'd happened before	had	

Exercise 1- Complete the sentences with the words you hear. (T 28)

Who wants to help move this piano?

1. She'll do it.
2. As soon as he comes back, I'm sure he'll offer.
3. I'll try, but my back is kind of sore.
4. They will, but they'll need to leave by 2:00.
5. I'm sorry, but we're not even going to try.
6. Give us a minute and then we'll do it.
7. You're not serious, are you?

Exercise 2-Complete the sentences with the words you hear. Write the long form for each contraction.

Interview with a Movie Star (T 29)

1. How did you get your start in films?
2. A question about your family: How have they enjoyed your success? How about your parents? How have they treated you since you've become a star?
3. What would you like to do next?
4. Your husband is a famous actor. When will he star in a picture with you?
5. What will you do for your next picture?

Exercise 3-Complete the sentences with the words you hear. Write the long form for each contraction.

Small Talk (T 30)

1. What will you do this weekend?
2. How did you like that weather we had?
3. How have they become so successful?
4. When will they get married?
5. What have you got planned for summer?
6. Where will they go for vacation?

Exercise 4-Complete the sentences with the words you hear. (T 31)

At the Bank

1. A: I'd like to open an account.
B: Just a moment, and the teller'll be right with you.
2. A: Is there a monthly charge for a checking account?
B: Next week there'll be a special promotion, and you can sign up then for an account with no fees.
3. A: I'd like to cash this check.
B: Because it's a large amount, the bank'll need to put a hold on it until it clears.
4. A: When'll my checks be ready?
B: It'll take 14 days.
5. A: Will I be overdrawn?
B: This check'll clear tomorrow and you'll be fine.

Exercise 5- Listen to the questions about your hometown and choose the correct verb in the contraction. (T 32)

- | | | | |
|--------------|-------------|------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. is | <u>does</u> | has | what's it look like? |
| 2. <u>is</u> | does | has | what's it like? |
| 3. <u>is</u> | does | has | what's there to do? |
| 4. <u>is</u> | does | has | where's your favorite place to go? |
| 5. is | does | <u>has</u> | what's the weather been like lately? |

Exercise 6-Listen to the statements about the weather and choose the word that is in the contraction you hear. (T 33)

- | | | | |
|-----------------|------------|-------------|--------------------------------------|
| 1. would | <u>had</u> | will | it'd better be sunny tomorrow |
| 2. would | had | <u>will</u> | I think it'll rain for days now |
| 3. <u>would</u> | had | will | it'd be nice if we had some sunshine |
| 4. <u>would</u> | had | will | I wish it'd warm up a little |
| 5. would | had | <u>will</u> | the sky looks like it'll snow soon |
| 6. would | <u>had</u> | will | it'd been nice for weeks |

Exercise 7- Complete the sentences with the words you hear. Right the long form. (T 34)

At a Restaurant

1. A: Can I park your car for you?
B: That would be great.
2. A: How's your pasta?
B: I think it would be better with less garlic.
3. A: Would you like ground pepper on your salad?
B: That would be fine.
4. A: Is our order almost ready?
B: It will just take a few more minutes
5. A: I'm sorry, but the fish doesn't taste fresh.
B: That's strange. It had just come this morning.

Exercise 8- Complete the sentences with the words you hear. Write the long form. (T 35)

Weather Report

The weather will be looking better as the week goes on. Today, we are looking at more rain but by tomorrow things will start to warm up. Look for highs only in the 40s tonight, but highs will get up into the 70s tomorrow. Rain will decrease, and

we will see some sunshine later in the day. That will continue through Thursday.

Then, you will want to take your umbrella on Friday because the rain will be back.

Review

R 1-Listen and repeat. The stress and intonation are marked for you. (Pause after each phrase, repeat the tape as necessary) (T36)

Looks Like...

Today
Tonight
Tomorrow
to work
to school
to the store
We have to go now.
He went to work
They hope to find it.
I can't wait to find out.
We don't know what to do.
Don't jump to conclusions.
To be or not to be...
He didn't get to go.
He told me to help.
She told you to get it.
I go to work
at a quarter to two
The only way to get it is...
You've got to pay to get it.
We plan to do it.
Let's go to lunch.
The score was 4 ~ 6
It's the only way to do it.
So to speak...
I don't know how to say it.

Sounds Like...

[t'day]
[t'night]
[t'märou]
[t'wrk]
[t' school]
[t' th' store]
[we hæftə go næo]
[he wentə work]
[they houptə fine dit]
[äi cæn(t)wai(t)tə fine dæot]
[we dont know w'(t)t' do]
[dont j'm t' c'ncloozh'nz]
[t'bee(y)r nät t' bee]
[he din ge(t)tə gou]
[he told meedə help]
[she tol joodə geddit]
[ai goudə wrk]
[ædə kworder də two]
[thee(y)only waydə geddidiz]
[yoov gäddə paydə geddit]
[we plæn də do it]
[lets goudə lunch]
[th' score w'z for də six]
[its thee(y)ounly weidə do(w)'t]
[soda speak]
[äi don(t)know hæwdə say(y)it]

Go to page 8.	[goudə pay jate]
Show me how to get it.	[show me hæodə geddit]
You need to know when to do it.	[you nee(d)də nou wendə do(w) it]
Who's to blame?	[hooz də blame]
We're at home.	[wirə t home]
I'll see you at lunch.	[äiyəl see you(w)ə tlunch]
Dinner's at five.	[d'nnerzə(t) five]
Leave them at the door.	[leevə mə(t) thə door]
The meeting's at one.	[th' meeding z't w'n]
He's at the post office.	[heezə(t)the poussdäffəs]
They're at the bank.	[thə rə(t) th' bænk]
I'm at school.	[äimə(t) school]
I'll see you at eleven.	[äiyəl see you(w)ədə lv'n]
He's at a meeting.	[heez' də meeding]
She laughed at his idea.	[she læf dædi zy deeyə]
One at a time	[wənədə time]
We got it at an auction.	[we gädidədə näksh'n]
The show started at eight.	[th' show stardədə date]
The dog jumped out at us.	[th' dæg jump dæo dədəs]
I was at a friend's house.	[äi w'z'd' frenz hæos]
Can you do it?	[k'niu do(w) 't]
Give it to me.	[g'v'(t)t' me]
Buy it tomorrow.	[bäi(y)ə(t)t' märrrow]
It can wait.	['t c' n wait]
Read it twice.	[ree d'(t) twice]
Forget about it!	[fr gedd ' bæodit]

Give it a try.	[gividæ try]
Let it alone.	[ledidə lone]
Take it away.	[tay kida way]
I got it in London.	[äi gädidin l'nd'n]
What is it about?	[w'd'z'd' bæot]
Let's try it again.	[lets try'd' gen]
Look! There it is!	[lūk there'd'z]
This is for you.	[th's'z fr you]
It's for my friend.	[ts fr my friend]
A table for four, please.	[ə table fr four , pleeze]
We planned it for later.	[we plan dit fr layd'r]
For example, for instance	[fregg zæmple] [frin st'nss]
What is this for?	[w'd'z this for] *
What did you do it for?	[w'j' do(w) it for]*

**(for is not reduced at the end of a sentence)*

Who did you get it for?	[hoojya geddit for]
It's from the IRS.	[ts frm thee(y)äi(y)ä ress]
I'm from Arkansas.	[äim fr'm ärk' nsä]
There's a call from Bob.	[therzə cäll fr'm Bäb]
This letter's from Alaska!	[this letterz frəmə læskə]
Who's it from?	[hoozit frəm]
Where are you from?	[wher'r you frəm]
It's in the bag.	[tsin thə bæg]
What's in it?	[w' ts 'n't]
I'll be back in a minute.	[äiyəl be bæk'nə m'n't]
This movie? Who's in it?	[this movie ... hooz'n't]

Come in.	[c 'min]
He's in America.	[heez'nə nə mɛrəkə]
He's an American.	[heez'nə mɛrəkən]
I got an A in English.	[äi gäddə nɔy ih nɪŋlɪʃ]
He got an F in Algebra.	[hee gäddə neffinæl jəbrə]
He had an accident.	[he hædə næksəd'nt]
We want an orange.	[we want'n nɔrnj]
He didn't have an excuse.	[he didnt hævə neks kyooss]
I'll be there in an instant.	[äi(y)'l be there inə nɪnstnt]
It's an easy mistake to make.	[itsə neezee m' stake t' make]
ham and eggs	[hæmə neggz]
bread and butter	[bredn buddr]
Coffee? With cream and sugar?	[kæffee ... with creem'n sh'g'r]
No, lemon and sugar.	[nou ... lem'n'n sh'g'r]
... And some more cookies?	[n smore cükeez]
They kept going back and forth.	[they kep going bækn forth]
We watched it again and again.	[we wäch didə gen'n' gen]
He did it over and over.	[he di di doverə nover]
We learned by trial and error.	[we lɪnd by tryətənerər]
Soup or salad?	[super salad]
now or later	[næ(w)r laydr]
more or less	[mor'r less]
left or right	[leftər right]
For here or to go?	[f'r hir'r d'go]
Are you going up or down?	[are you going úpper dówn]

*This is an either / or question (Up? Down?) Notice how the intonation is different from "Cream and **sugar**?", which is a yes / no question.*

What are you doing?	[w'dr you doing]
Where are you going?	[wer'r you going]
What're you planning on doing?	[w'dr yü planning än doing]
How are you?	[hæwr you]
Those are no good.	[thozer no good]
How are you doing?	[hæwer you doing]
The kids are still asleep.	[the kid zer stillə sleep]
How's your family?	[hæozhier fæm lee]
Where're your keys?	[wher'r y'r keez]
You're American, aren't you?	[yrə mer 'k'n, arn choo]
Tell me when you're ready.	[tell me wen yr reddy]
Is this your car?	[izzis y'r cär]
You're late again, Bob.	[yer lay də gen , Băb]
Which one is yours?	[which w'n'z y'rz]
Which one is better?	[which w'n'z bedder]
One of them is broken.	[w'n'v'm'z brok 'n]
I'll use the other one.	[æɫ yuz thee(y) ə ther w'n]
I like the red one, Edwin.	[äi like the red w'n, edw'n]
That's the last one.	[thæts th' lass dw 'n]
The next one'll be better.	[the necks dw'n'll be bedd 'r]
Here's one for you.	[hir zw'n f'r you]
Let them go one by one.	[led'm gou w'n by w'n]
It's the best.	[ts th' best]
What's the matter?	[w'ts th' madder]
What's the problem?	[w'tsə präbl 'm]
I have to go to the bathroom.	[äi hæf t' go d' th' bæth room]
Who's the boss around here?	[hoozə bäss sərəəond hir]
Give it to the dog.	[g'v'(t)tə th' däg]

Put it in the drawer.	[püdidin th' dror]
It's a present.	[tsə preznt]
You need a break.	[you needə break]
Give him a chance.	[g'v'mə chæns]
Let's get a new pair of shoes.	[lets geddə new perə shooz]
Can I have a Coke, please?	[c'nai hævə kouk , pleez]
Is that a computer?	[izzædə k'mpyoodr]
Where's a public telephone?	[wherzə pəblic teləfoun]
It's the top of the line.	[tsə täp'v th' line]
It's a state of the art printer.	[tsə stay də thee(y)ärt prinner]
As a matter of fact, ...	[z'mædderə fækt]
Get out of here.	[geddæow də hir]
Practice all of the time.	[prækt 'säll'v th' time]
Today's the first of May.	[t'dayz th' frss d'v May]
What's the name of that movie?	[w'ts th' nay m'v thæt movie]
That's the best of all!	[thæts th' bess d'väll]
some of them	[səməvəm]
all of them	[älləvəm]
most of them	[mosdəvəm]
none of them	[nənəvəm]
any of them	[ennyəvəm]
the rest of them	[th' resdəvəm]
Can you speak English?	[k'new spee kinglish]
I can only do it on Wednesday.	[äi k' nonly du(w)idän wenzday]
A can opener can open cans.	[ə kæn opener k'nopen kænz]
Can I help you?	[k'näi hel piu]
Can you do it?	[k'niu do(w) 't]
We can try it later.	[we k'n try it layder]
I hope you can sell it.	[äi hou piu k'n sell 't]
No one can fix it.	[nou w'n k'n fick sit]

Let me know if you can find it.	[lemme no(w)'few k'n fine dit]
Jack had had enough.	[jæk'd hæd' n'f]
Bill had forgotten again.	[bil'd frga(t)n nə gen]
What had he done to deserve it?	[w'd'dee d'nd'd' zr vit]
We'd already seen it.	[weedäl reddy see nit]
He'd never been there.	[heed never bin there]
Had you ever had one?	[h'jou(w)ever hædw'n]
Where had he hidden it?	[wer dee hidnən it]
Bob said he'd looked into it.	[bäb sedeed lük din tu(w)it]
He would have helped, if ...	[he wuda help dif ...]
Would he like one?	[woody lye kw'n]
Do you think he'd do it?	[dyiu thing keed du(w) 't]
Why would I tell her?	[why wüdäi teller]
We'd see it again, if...	[weed see(y)idä gen , if...]
He'd never be there on time.	[heed never be therän time]
Would you ever have one?	[w'jou(w)ever hævw'n]
He was only trying to help.	[he w'zounly trying də help]
Mark was American.	[mär kw'z'mer'k'n]
Where was it?	[wer w'z 't]
How was it?	[hæow'z't]
That was great!	[thæt w'z great]
Who was with you?	[hoow'z with you]
She was very clear.	[she w'z very clear]
When was the war of 1812?	[wen w'z th' wor 'v ei(t)teentwelv]
What time is it?	[w't tye m'z't]
What's up?	[w'ts'p]

What's on your agenda?	[w'tsänyrə jendə]
What do you mean?	[w'd'y' mean]
What did you mean?	[w'j' mean]
What did you do about it?	[w'j' du(w) əbæodit]
What took so long?	[w't tük so lǎŋ]
What do you think of this?	[w'ddyə thing k'v this]
What did you do then?	[w'jiu do then]
I don't know what he wants.	[I dont know wædee wänts]
Some are better than others.	[s'mr beddr thənə therz]
There are some leftovers.	[ther'r s'm lef doverz]
Let's buy some ice cream.	[let spy s' mice creem]
Could we get some other ones?	[kwee get s 'mother w'nz]
Take some of mine.	[take sǝmǝv mine]
Would you like some more?	[w' joo like s' more]
<i>(or very casually)</i>	[jlike smore]
Do you have some ice?	[dyü hæv sǝ mice]
Do you have some mice?	[dyü hæv sǝ mice]

Try reading the sentence below on your own:

"You can fool some of the people some of the time, but you can't fool all of the people all of the time." [yuk'n **foolsǝmǝ** thǝ peepǝl sǝ**mǝ** thǝ time, b'choo **kǝnt fool** **ǎll**ǝthǝ peepǝl **ǎll**ǝthǝ time]

Exercise R2- Listen to the short passage. Complete the sentences with the words you hear.

The Origin of the Word "OK" (T 37)

I'd like to tell you about the origin of the word "OK". In 1840, there was a group of men that wanted to re-elect Martin Van Buren as president of the U.S. They formed a club called the OK Democratic Club. They chose the name OK because Van Buren was from a town called Kinderhook, New York, and his nickname was "Old Kinderhook". So his

initials were “OK”. That was also the password for the club. Soon, “OK” began to be used to mean “all right”. Now it is an expression that is used around the world.

- **Our, are and or** are often confused in fast speech, because when reduced they sound very similar. When reduced “our” sounds like “are”. “are” and “or” are often reduced to *r*.

Exercise R3- Choose the word you hear (T 38)

Making Plane Reservations

1. our are or do you want an aisle **or** window seat?
2. our are or when **are** you planning to travel
3. our are or please hold. All reservation agents **are** helping other customers
4. our are or please hold. One of **our** agents will be with you in a moment
5. our are or **our** policy doesn't allow children under five to travel alone
6. our are or you can pay by credit card **or** mail a check

Exercise R4- Fill in the blanks with the words you hear. (T 39)

Store Complaints

1. **A:** Our sofa hasn't arrived yet. It was supposed to be here one or two weeks ago.
B: Let me check our records.
2. **A:** I'm not sure if the lamp's broken or if the light bulb doesn't work.
B: Let's see.
3. **A:** What are we going to do? Our refrigerator has stopped working, and we're having a dinner party this weekend.
B: Our policy is to send out Our first available repair person. It looks like that will be tomorrow. Will you be home, or should we call first?
A: I don't know what our plans are. Let me call you back.

Exercise R5- Listen to the conversation and complete the sentences with the words you hear.

Going to the Gym (T 40)

A: Are you going to the gym this afternoon?

B: Isn't it closed? Today's a holiday.

A: No it's open from 12:00 to 4:00.

B: Oh, I don't know. My back is a bit sore. I worked too long in the garden yesterday.

A: That's all the more reason to go the gym. You can do a lot of exercises.

B: I do these at home.

A: I know, but I sure like some company!

B: O.K. I'll go. I'll meet you in an hour.

PRACTICE (CD 2)

Exercise 1- Listen to the conversation and fill in the blanks with the words you hear.
(Recorded twice) (T 2)

Julie: The party's tonight. I've invited a lot of people.

Shoko: Then, let's go shopping. It's already a quarter of three.

J: You're right. It's late. Let's make a list.

S: OK. We need a case of soda.

J: Right. We also need a bag of pretzels.

S: What about a few bags of chips?

J: OK. And a couple of packages of cheese for the dip.

S: Great! Your cheese dips are always so good.

J: Thanks. We need a couple of other things, too.

S: Wait. I don't have my credit card. Do you have yours?

Exercise 2- Listen to the conversation and complete the sentences with the words you hear. (Recorded twice) (T3)

Julie: Excuse me. Where's the milk?

Checker: It's down aisle 15.

J: Thanks.

Checker: Excuse me, Miss. You're going the wrong way. Aisle 15 is on your left.

J: Oh! Thank you. *(to herself)* I need three cartons of milk and a few cartons of orange juice. *(to clerk)* Excuse me. Where are the boxes of cookies?

Clerk: Go down aisle 10. They're at the end of the aisle. They're beside the cans and nuts.

J: Thanks. Oh! I also want meat for hamburgers. Where's the meat section?

C: It's at the end of aisle 1. Aisle 1 is on your right, in the corner of the store.

J: One more thing. I need buns for the hamburgers.

C: Hamburger buns are at the end of aisle 2, near the crackers.

J: Thank you. *(to another shopper)*. Excuse me. What time is it?

Shopper: It's ten of four.

J: *(to herself)* Oh, my gosh! I need to make all of the food for the party in two hours!

(See transcript section)

Exercise 3- "do ya / are ya" Choose the phrase you hear. (T 4)

1. do you are you

2. do you are you

3. do you are you
 4. do you are you
 5. do you are you

Exercise 4- "wanna / gonna" Choose the phrase you hear. (T 5)

1. want to going to
 2. want to going to
 3. want to going to
 4. want to going to
 5. want to going to want to going to

Exercise 5- "kin / kan" Choose the word you hear. (T 6)

1. can can't
 2. can can't can can't
 3. can can't can can't
 4. can can't
 5. can can't can can't

Exercise 6- "hafta / hasta" Choose the phrase you hear. (T 7)

1. have to has to
 2. have to has to have to has to
 3. have to has to
 4. have to has to

Exercise 7- "im / em" Choose the word you hear. (T 8)

1. him them
 2. him them
 3. him them

4. him them him them

5. him them him them

Exercise 8- "n / er" Choose the word you hear. (T 9)

1. and or

2. and or

3. and or and or

4. and or

5. and or and or

Exercise 9- "er / fer / er" Choose the word you hear. (T 10)

1. or for her or for her

2. or for her

3. or for her or for her

4. or for her or for her

5. or for her

Exercise 10- Choose the phrase you hear. (T 11)

1. what do you what are you what have you

2. what do you what are you what have you

3. what do you what are you what have you

4. what do you what are you what have you

5. what do you what are you what have you

Exercise 11- Choose the word you hear. (T 12)

1. have has had

2. have has had have has had

3. have has had have has had

4. have has had have has had

Exercise 12- “shoulda-shouldna / coulda-couldna / woulda-wouldna” Choose the phrase you hear. (T 13)

- | | | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 1. <u>should have</u> | shouldn't have | should have | <u>shouldn't have</u> |
| 2. could have | <u>couldn't have</u> | | |
| 3. would have | <u>wouldn't have</u> | should have | <u>shouldn't have</u> |
| 4. could have | <u>couldn't have</u> | <u>would have</u> | wouldn't have |
| 5. <u>could have</u> | couldn't have | | |

Exercise 13- Listen to the conversation and answer the questions. (T 14)

1. What does Kenji want to do?
2. Does Tim want to do this?
3. Do you think Tim has ever gone bungee jumping?
4. What food does Kenji suggest?

Exercise 14- Listen to the conversation and answer the questions. (T 15)

1. What kind of car is John looking for?
2. How much does he want to spend?
3. Do you think this is enough money to buy a late model car? Explain.
4. Does the salesperson think this is enough money? Explain.
5. What does the salesperson offer John?
6. What do you think John will say next?

Exercise 15- Listen to the conversation between Nancy and Kim and answer the questions. (Nancy starts the conversation) (T 16)

1. What's Nancy doing?
2. How does Nancy greet Kim?
3. Why does Nancy thank Kim?
4. How does Kim say “good-bye”?

Exercise 16- Listen to the conversation and answer the questions. (T 17)

1. What does Elizabeth ask Tom?
 - a) why he is late
 - b) where he is going
 - c) **what he's been doing**
 - d) where he's been working lately
2. What can be inferred from the sentence: "What have your children said about that?"
 - a) he's asking how his granddaughter's parents are
 - b) **he has doubts about whether the event is right**
 - c) that the woman's children are angry with her
 - d) that he is crazy
3. What can be said about the speakers?
 - a) they are best friends
 - b) they don't like each other
 - c) **they are old but healthy**
 - d) they are suffering from serious illnesses.

Practice Exercise 17- Listen to the conversation and answer the questions. (T 18)

1. What's Tony's problem?
2. When do they first offer him an appointment?
3. Why does he want an appointment sooner?
4. Do you think Tony has medical insurance? Explain.
5. What do you think the receptionist will say next?

TRANSCRIPT

Practice Exercise 3

1. MALE: Do you like the eggs?
FEMALE: Oh, yeah!
2. MALE: Are you finished?
FEMALE: Yeah.
3. MALE: Do you want anything else?
FEMALE: No.
4. MALE: Do you want the check?
FEMALE: The check?
5. MALE: Yeah. Are you paying by credit card?
FEMALE: Uh, no. Cash.

Practice Exercise 4

1. TEENAGER: I want to use your credit card.
2. MOM: You're not going to use my credit card.
3. TEENAGER: I'm not going to spend much.
4. MOM: You're not going to spend *anything*.
5. TEENAGER: I just want to buy a jacket. I don't want to spend a lot. Really.

Practice Exercise 5

1. MALE #1: Can you sing opera?
2. MALE #1: You can't sing opera, can you?
3. MALE #2: No, I can't, but I can dance.
4. MALE #1: Can you tap dance?
5. MALE #2: Well, no. I can't, but I can learn.

Practice Exercise 6

1. FEMALE #1: What do you have to do?
2. FEMALE #2: I have to help my brother. He has to write a report.
3. FEMALE #1: He has to write a report?
4. FEMALE #2: Yes, and I have to help him.

Practice Exercise 7

1. FEMALE: Tell him what you want.
2. MALE: I can't tell him. I need to tell the whole class.
3. FEMALE: Okay, tell them what you want.
4. MALE: I don't want to tell them now. I'll tell them later.
5. FEMALE: Oh, all right. Tell him when you tell all of them.

Practice Exercise 8

1. MALE: I want some chips and dip for the party.
2. FEMALE: Do you want cheese or onion dip?
3. MALE: Onion dip. And how about some sandwiches and sodas?
4. FEMALE: Do you want turkey sandwiches or chicken?
5. MALE: Chicken. And I want them on wheat or rye bread.

Practice Exercise 9

1. TEENAGER: I want to use your credit card.
2. MOM: You're not going to use my credit card.
3. TEENAGER: I'm not going to spend much.
4. MOM: You're not going to spend *anything*.
5. TEENAGER: I just want to buy a jacket. I don't want to spend a lot. Really.

Practice Exercise 10

1. MALE #1: What are you doing?
2. MALE #2: Nothing. What do you have in mind?
3. MALE #1: Well, what are you watching on TV?
4. MALE #2: It's almost 8:00 P.M. What do you think I'm watching?
5. MALE #1: I don't know. What have you decided to watch?

Practice Exercise 11

1. MALE #1: What have you done?
2. MALE #2: Nothing. I had just finished reading my book when I saw it. What has *she* done?
3. MALE #1: She's only three years old. What do you mean, "What has *she* done?" What have *you* done? You're supposed to be watching her.
4. MALE #2: What have *they* done? She had to draw on the *wall*. They didn't give her any paper.

Practice Exercise 12

1. MALE: I should have just had coffee. I shouldn't have eaten those two pieces of pie and the rest of the cake.
2. FEMALE: You couldn't have eaten all of that!
3. MALE: Well, I did. I wouldn't have eaten the pie, but it was chocolate. I shouldn't have eaten the cake, too.
4. FEMALE: I couldn't have eaten all of that. I would have stopped after the pie.
5. MALE: I could have tried, but the cake was also chocolate.

Practice Exercise 13

KENJI: What are you doing this weekend?
 TIM: Not much. What do you have in mind?
 KENJI: Bungee jumping.
 TIM: Bungee jumping?
 KENJI: What do you think?
 TIM: Maybe. What do we need to bring?
 KENJI: What do we need?
 Well, a couple of bottles of water, some backpacks . . .
 TIM: What are you thinking of having for food?
 KENJI: Oh, fried egg sandwiches, chocolate cake, soda . . .
 What are you doing?
 TIM: I'm writing it down.

Practice Exercise 15

NANCY: Well, hi! You're shopping here, too!
 KIM: Not really. I'm just looking around. So, how have you been?
 NANCY: Great. I'm shopping with my sister. She's over there.
 KIM: Is that your sister? The tall woman in front of the jackets?
 NANCY: Yes. She's looking for a jacket for work.
 KIM: Are you shopping for work clothes, too?
 NANCY: No. I'm looking for a pair of jeans like yours.
 KIM: Oh. I found these here last week for 30 percent off.
 NANCY: For 30 percent off? Thanks for telling me.
 KIM: Well, nice seeing you again. I hope you find what you're looking for.

Practice Exercise 14

JOHN: I'm looking for a car.
 SALESPERSON: Okay. For a new car?
 JOHN: No. For a used car.
 SALESPERSON: For a recent model?
 JOHN: Yes. For a late model economy car.
 SALESPERSON: What price do you have in mind for the car?
 JOHN: Around \$8,500. What's your price range for economy cars?
 SALESPERSON: You can't buy a late model for \$8,500.
 JOHN: You're sure?
 SALESPERSON: Yes, sir. But I have a very nice late model for \$11,900.

Practice Exercise 16

ELIZABETH: Well, hello! What have you been doing lately?
 TOM: Oh, I've been hiking a lot. So, where has your sister been? I haven't seen her.
 ELIZABETH: She's gone to Shanghai.
 TOM: Shanghai? Why has she gone to Shanghai?
 ELIZABETH: To visit some friends. So, who have you been hiking with?
 TOM: Mostly my grandson. And how have your grandchildren been?
 ELIZABETH: Great. I gave my granddaughter some skydiving lessons for her graduation.
 TOM: Really? When had she become interested in skydiving?
 ELIZABETH: Oh, a few months ago. We're, uh, doing it together.
 TOM: You're jumping out of airplanes? What have your children said about that?

Practice Exercise 17

RECEPTIONIST: Hello. Dr.
Okamoto's office.

TONY: This is Tony Lamotta.
I have a terrible backache.

RECEPTIONIST: We have an opening
tomorrow morning at 10:00.

TONY: I had to stay home from
work today. You haven't got
anything sooner?

RECEPTIONIST: Wait a minute.
The doctor has a cancellation at
3:00 today. Can you come in then?

TONY: She has an opening at 3:00?
Thank you so much.

RECEPTIONIST: You're welcome.
What kind of insurance do you have?

TONY: What kind of insurance do I
have?

RECEPTIONIST: The doctors
have a policy. If you don't have
insurance, we can't bill you.

TONY: You mean, I'm going to have to
pay her today? I hadn't planned
for that.